

THE
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ART. I.—*Memoirs of Horatio, Lord Walpole. Selected from his Correspondence and Papers, and connected with the History of the Times, from 1678 to 1757. Illustrated with Portraits. By William Coxe, M.A. F.R.S. F.A.S. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

IN our twenty-third and twenty-fourth volumes we accompanied Mr. Coxe through the eventful period of modern history which comprised the administration of sir Robert Walpole—a minister whose faults and virtues may now be scanned with coolness and impartiality, since none who are alive can complain that he reigned too long. As a minister, he was able and honest: pacific and good-humoured, he preserved peace as long as was in his power; and if the accusation be well founded, that he introduced corruption into one branch of the legislature, he was only a party in the crime. If public virtue decline, bribery will necessarily flourish; but the rigid spirits of Curius Dentatus in ancient times, and of Andrew Marvel in a more modern æra—we wish we could add Sidney to the list!—sufficiently prove that the mind must be accessible before the attempt can succeed; it must be suspected of yielding before the bribe can be offered. Should it then, as we have said, prove true, the event would probably have happened, had sir Robert Walpole never existed.

The minuter history of the æra however was not complete, without the addition of the volume before us. Horace, the affectionate brother, the firm steady friend; the fond eulogist of sir Robert, was his associate in every scene: more conversant with foreign affairs, his life was spent in diplomatic exertions, subservient in every instance to the interests of his brother, and, consequently, at times too subservient to the prejudices of the king. Party has diminished the merit of his services, and misrepresented many parts of his conduct; but in this volume he is allowed to speak for himself; and he appears to great advantage. Extensive in his knowledge of foreign connexions; inde-

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fatigable in business; zealous in the service of his country; and respectfully bold in his language to the king, where the prejudices of the monarch, in his opinion, interfered with those measures which were most beneficial to the nation; he combined with great success the *suaviter in modo* and *fortiter in re*, and appears, in every transaction, honest, able, and judicious.

To follow minutely the various intricate transactions of a long and busy life, it is impossible in this journal. It must be rather our business to notice some of the more important parts, that may enable the reader to form his own opinion of the merit of lord Walpole, and the ability and diligence of his biographer. As a kind of index, we shall copy the following short sketch of his life.

‘ From an early period of his life, lord Walpole was engaged in a public capacity. In 1706, he accompanied general Stanhope to Barcelona as private secretary, and was employed in various missions of consequence. In 1707, he was appointed secretary to Mr. Boyle, first as chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards as secretary of state; and, in 1709, accompanied the duke of Marlborough and lord Townshend, who were plenipotentiaries at the congress of Gertruydenberg. Soon after the accession of George the First, he was successively under secretary of state, secretary to the treasury, and envoy at the Hague, until the schism of the whig ministry, which terminated in the resignations of lord Townshend and his brother, as well as his own.

‘ In 1720 he became secretary to the duke of Grafton, lord lieutenant of Ireland; was re-appointed secretary to the treasury, and again deputed to the Hague.

‘ In 1723 he commenced his embassy to Paris; and continued to fill that important station until 1730. In 1733 he was nominated ambassador to the States General, and remained at the Hague until 1739, when he returned to England.

‘ During the whole period of sir Robert Walpole’s administration, lord Walpole was an able and useful co-adjutor to his brother, both in and out of parliament; and was consulted in all business of state, particularly foreign transactions. During his residence abroad, besides official dispatches, he maintained a private intercourse of letters with his brother, and even a confidential correspondence with queen Caroline, who reposed the fullest reliance on his talents and integrity.

‘ Although, from the time of his brother’s resignation, he filled no official station; yet, in consequence of his abilities, experience, and weight among his party, he retained a considerable influence over many of the ministers; he was confidentially consulted by Mr. Pelham and lord chancellor Hardwicke, and often gave his opinion in the most frank and unreserved manner to the duke of Newcastle, to the duke of Cumberland, and even to the king.’ P. xi.

The important documents from which these Memoirs are

taken fill 160 large volumes or port-folios. Of these (certainly too extensive for publication) Mr. Coxe has availed himself.

‘ 1. Of his apology, the greater part of which is printed in these Memoirs.

‘ 2. Of his extensive correspondence during his embassy at Paris.

‘ 3. Of that part of his correspondence with queen Caroline, and the other branches of the royal family, which was not printed in the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly his interesting letters to the duke of Cumberland in 1746 and 1747.

‘ 4. His miscellaneous correspondence, from 1742 to 1757.

‘ 5. Thoughts on the utility of an alliance with Prussia, occasioned by the approaching death of the king, 1740.—Project of a grand alliance, founded upon a good understanding between his majesty and the king of Prussia, Oct. 5, 1740.—Rhapsody of foreign politics, occasioned by the conclusion of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and that with Spain in 1750; and other documents which are referred to in the course of the narrative.

‘ 6. The substance of a speech on the question for continuing the Hanover troops in the pay of Great Britain, 1743.—Substance of a speech in the committee of supply, on the demand of the empress-queen for £.100,000, 1749.—Mr. Walpole's speech in a committee of the whole house, upon a motion that a sum not exceeding £.32,000 be granted to his majesty, to make good his engagements with the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, by treaty, 1752.

‘ In addition to these sources of information, I have had recourse to the various other documents enumerated in the preface to the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly the Orford, Waldegrave, Grantham, Harrington, Melcombe and Keene Papers.

‘ The Hardwicke Papers supplied me with a series of confidential letters between the duke of Newcastle, lord Walpole, lord chancellor Hardwicke, and his son the hon. Philip Yorke, late earl of Hardwicke. I have also derived considerable information from a parliamentary journal written by the late earl, which contains an account of the debates during the session of 1744 and 1745; and details many interesting particulars concerning the dismissal of lord Granville and the formation of the Broad-bottom ministry.

‘ I have availed myself of the correspondence between lord Walpole and Mr. Etough, in the Etough Papers; and particularly of a narrative drawn up by Mr. Etough, entitled, “Minutes of Memorable Conversations with the late Lord Walpole, Baron of Wolterton, with Remarks on his Character and Conduct.”

‘ I am considerably indebted to lord viscount Hampden, for access to the papers of his noble father, who was the confidential friend of lord Walpole, secretary to the embassy, and afterwards envoy and plenipotentiary at the Hague. This collection contains numerous letters from lord Walpole, which form an interesting addition to the narrative.

‘ From the papers of sir Charles Hanbury Williams, preserved at Pont-y-Pool Park, communicated by the kindness of Capel Hanbury Leigh, esquire, I derived many curious anecdotes; and have been

enabled to give to the public some interesting letters of Mr. Fox, afterwards lord Holland.' P. xiv.

This volume is designed as a companion and supplement to the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole; and consequently much is avoided that belongs rather to that work, and the narrative confined to foreign transactions and other circumstances not connected with the former Memoirs. Wherever printed documents, that illustrate the transactions of the times from sources that command assent, exist, they are also noticed. In fact, our author gives the outline only; the shades, which constitute in a great degree the likeness, are filled up with Horace Walpole's own words; and the whole is rendered more interesting by the addition of portraits of the principal actors in the scene, and very generally of *fac-similes* of their writing. The penmanship of that æra is much neater than we expected to find it.

The events of the early life of Horace must not detain us. Having been himself in a subordinate station, there is little of authentic communication. We perceive, as second to lord Cadogan, and in different missions to the Hague, he attained a character which facilitated his subsequent progress. Some account of Dutch politics, and the constitution of the United Provinces, particularly respecting the necessity of a regulating balance in the appointment of a stadtholder, is introduced. The Dutch patriots, we suppose, felt the full influence of this reasoning, and have adopted as *their* regulator the first consul.

In 1723, Mr. Walpole was sent ambassador to Paris; and in this *début* of his career, as a separate and independent negotiator, we find much to praise. It was a momentous crisis. What relates to the death of the duke of Orléans, the administration of the duke of Bourbon, with the gradual and at last uncontrolled ascendancy of Fleury, is particularly interesting. Of sir Robert Walpole it may justly be said,

'Peace is his dear delight—not Fleury's more;' and *together they did preserve peace.* The two nations had reason to bless them for it. We have seen nothing more interesting than this minute history, whether we consider the cautious, the guarded progress of Fleury, or the gradual political ascendancy which Walpole gained over him—an ascendancy not to be wondered at, when it appears that their objects were the same. We have all heard of the vices of the abbé Du Bois, described with the fascinating *naïveté* of St. Simon:—let us attend to the picture in another light.

'William du Bois, who thus attained the highest station in church and state, was the son of an apothecary in Limousin, and was born in 1656. Chance having made him sub-preceptor to the duke of Orléans, his supple temper, insinuating manners, versatile talents, and

indefatigable perseverance in promoting his own views, raised him to the highest honours and employments of the state. The notorious infamy of his private character has induced superficial observers to deny him abilities which he really possessed, and not sufficiently to appreciate his capacity for public business, and talents for negotiation.

‘ In fact he did not solely gain the favour of his pupil by flattering his passions and pandering to his vices, but he inspired him with a love of science, rendered natural philosophy easy and familiar, and instructed him in political knowledge. He also accompanied the young prince in some of his campaigns, and displayed at the battle of Steinkirk a striking instance of personal valour and humanity. Marshal Luxembourg, who commanded in that memorable engagement, said to Louis the Fourteenth, who mentioned that the abbé Pelisson died without confession, “ I know another abbé who might die in the same situation.” “ Who ? ” enquired the king. “ The abbé du Bois,” returned Luxembourg, “ who intrepidly exposed himself to danger in the battle of Steinkirk. I met him in every part of the field.” At the conclusion of the engagement he prevailed on the duke of Chartres to give orders for the removal and care of the wounded; he wrote also an account of the battle with equal spirit and precision, and his letter pleased and surprised Louis the Fourteenth.’ p. 30.

The little episodes in this picture relate to the intrigues of sir Luke Schaub, Walpole’s predecessor, and in some part of the time his colleague, and the more artful politics of Bolingbroke. It is evident that, from these difficulties, Mr. Walpole extricated himself with success. His connexion with cardinal Fleury appears to have been peculiarly cordial and friendly; as an instance of which, we shall select a confidential conversation subsequent to the dismissal of the duke of Bourbon.

“ You have not been at all mistaken in me, nor have I in the least deceived you: when I spoke to you formerly in confidence of M. le duc, I never meant otherwise than what I said; my intentions were always sincere for his continuation to be first minister; and even after my retreat into the country, and return to court, notwithstanding his ill treatment of me, so little deserved from him, I still resolved to live in friendship with him, though with the same freedom of speaking my mind to him as I had done before; but his unalterable perseverance in being governed entirely by those whom I detested for the sake of my king and country, made it impossible for me to go on with him at that rate; and I had no other way to take, unless I would absolutely withdraw myself from business, which you had constantly engaged me not to do. You may remember when you last week hinted to me your apprehensions of disorders at court, and of a difference between M. le duc and me; I did not then speak of his highness in the manner I had formerly done, and gave you plainly to understand that the situation of things, with respect to us two, was a good deal altered. But I could not venture to tell you, though I was extremely desirous to do it, what was then in agita-

tion; for the king had engaged me to the utmost secrecy, by letting me know that he would keep the secret, and desired that I would do so too. However I was almost tempted to tell it you when you left me on Tuesday in the afternoon: and I went so far as to send my valet de chambre to look for you at five o'clock on purpose, but you was gone to Paris; and the king's letter to M. le duc was not delivered till six, and neither M. de Morville, nor any person whatsoever but the duke de Charost, who was to execute his majesty's orders, knew of it till after it was done. The whole matter passed betwixt the king and myself, and even without the queen's knowledge; from whence you may conclude, that the reports from Spain, as well as whatever you may have heard here, of my caballing with the duke of Orléans and others, were entirely groundless; for neither he nor the count de Thoulouse had the least intimation or apprehension of it; and when his highness came post hither yesterday morning, with a design to go immediately to Rambouillet, he was desired to return back again to Paris. What you mention of the imperial court depending upon my interest in their favour, I can assure you, to my certain knowledge, that M. Fonseca not long since wrote the contrary, and assured the emperor that he found me firm to the engagements with England. As to what Mr. Palm said to Pozzobueno, which he had from one Falcie, I must own it has a great resemblance to the event, and it struck both M. le duc and me extremely when it was read; but it is one of those accidental things that are said sometimes by hazard, without any foundation, and yet prove true.

"You may depend upon it (which he accompanied with the strongest assurances) that this alteration in our government will not make the least change in our measures, particularly with regard to the strict union and friendship between his majesty and the king of Great Britain; and you know I have been the author and chief promoter of it. And as I have the same opinion of you which I always had, and of your character, I am resolved to do nothing without you; and, as a convincing proof of it, I desire you will read this letter, which I have just wrote to the king of Spain, but would not send till you had seen it; which he then put into my hands."

* * * * * P. 125.

What relates to the circumstance of the secret articles between the emperor and the king of Spain, relative to the establishment of the Pretender, and the recovery of Gibraltar, we shall select. The parliament met at the end of the year 1726.

"The speech from the throne, on this important occasion, contained a remarkable passage: "I have likewise received information, from different parts, on which I can entirely depend, that the placing the Pretender upon the throne of this kingdom is one of the articles of the secret engagements."

"This charge, formally announced from the mouth of the king, was as formally disavowed by the emperor, and occasioned his imprudent appeal to the British nation, by the publication of his minister, count Palm's memorial, which roused the spirit of the people,

and united all parties in support of the dignity of the throne. This formal charge on one side, and denial on the other, of the two sovereigns, gave rise to a controversy, which occupied the attention of Europe at the period, and is still undecided. Mr. Walpole, whose sagacity and information cannot be disputed, and whose sincerity cannot be questioned, believed the existence of these secret articles; as appears from numerous documents and observations in his own hand-writing, found among his papers, not only during the negotiations against Spain and the emperor, but even in the latter period of his life, when he had no views or interests to promote. Perhaps no proof made a stronger impression on his mind than the communication of the secret articles by two Sicilian abbots, of great birth and consequence, who received them from king Philip himself, on the 15th of November 1725, for the purpose of making their observations.*
P. 138.

We may shortly remark, without engaging in the controversy, that Mr. Belsham has expressed a very different opinion in his *Historical Dissertations*. Mr. Coxe rests on the letter of count Zinzendorf, and the article of the secret treaty communicated to Mr. Walpole by the two Sicilian abbots*, who received it from Philip himself.

In the narrative of Montgon's mission to France from Spain, we see the first instance of the vacillation of the cardinal in his attachment to England. Mr. Walpole was then absent; but his return restored the ascendancy of the English party. The siege of Gibraltar was raised, the peace of Vienna concluded, and the scene closed with the death of George I.

This last event excited the hopes of the Pretender's friends, and Montgon gave the strongest assurances of the co-operation of Spain. Fleury, however, still continued sufficiently firm in his attachment to Walpole and to this country; and urged the ambassador to repair to London, to assure the king of his persevering friendship, and, in effect, to deprecate any change either of men or of measures. Yet, during the whole of this time, the connexion with Spain was gaining ground. The dismissal of the Infanta was forgotten, and every step that could be suggested was taken to induce France to join in the league, with the ultimate view of recovering Gibraltar. This renewed friendship, however, was impeded as much as possible by Walpole; and in this he appears to have been ably assisted by the marshal Berwick, the brother of the Pretender, a natural son of James. A short life of Berwick is added, with every honourable encomium. It is admitted, nevertheless, even by Mr. Walpole, that, in case of a war between England and France, he would not have declined the command of the French army opposed to that of our own country.

* Platania and Caraccioli.

The ascendancy of the Spanish interest was soon conspicuous, in the removal of Morville, a decided friend to England. Fleury, however, represented it to Mr. Walpole as a family reconciliation only, and endeavoured to convince the ambassador that it would not impair his former attachment. We shall select a passage or two from Mr. Walpole's apology: it relates to the events of the congress of Soissons, to which Mr. Walpole was plenipotentiary. Chauvelin held the seals, as the successor of Morville.

"It is unnecessary here to enter into a detail of several disagreeable particulars, that occurred to Mr. Walpole's close observation, of M. Chauvelin's intimacy with certain persons, no friends to the good understanding between England and France. His fallacious and equivocal way of talking and writing to different persons, upon matters of great moment, relating to both courts, gave Mr. Walpole great disquiet. The cardinal, indeed, used his utmost endeavours to remove all his jealousies, and redress his complaints; yet Chauvelin, by his address, flattery, and indefatigable attention, to ease and please his eminence, had gained such an interest and credit with him, that the remaining part of Mr. Walpole's ministry in France was disagreeable and painful. However, the union between England, France, and Holland, continuing firm in their measures, the precarious and changeable state of the emperor's affairs, (now the payment of subsidies from Spain has been stopped,) made that court extremely uneasy, and desirous to see the queen of Spain more tractable. At last Philip's health was grown so desperate that the queen was alarmed, and caused the preliminaries to be ratified at the Pardo, in March 1728; and the congress of all the ministers concerned was soon after signified at Soissons." p. 166.

The artful attempts of count Zinzendorf, the imperial ambassador, irritated the Spanish court, who began to show a disposition to unite with France and England.

"The plan of a treaty, for that purpose, was projected by Mr. Patino, prime minister at Madrid, and transmitted from thence to monsieur Chauvelin, (who was thought to have had a private correspondence with that court, separately from the cardinal;) and he having readily adopted it, took care immediately to represent it in so favourable a light to his eminence, as what would put an end to all differences, and make a perfect peace with Spain, that the cardinal, having nothing more at heart, seemed mightily pleased, and flattered himself that it would be agreeable to the British plenipotentiaries, Mr. Stanhope (now lord Harrington) Mr. Poyntz, and Mr. Walpole. But when the project came to be considered by them, they found it composed of articles conceived in terms very loose and vague with respect to the interest of England, leaving our antient privileges of trade with Spain, and the right for our possession of Gibraltar and Port Mahon, to be contested and decided before other powers. They represented to the cardinal, how impossible it was for them to approve so deficient and imperfect a scheme, letting

him know that England had been engaged in a war with Spain, by the siege of Gibraltar, which had made all treaties between those two crowns void; that the first and fundamental step to be taken for a reconciliation, and an absolute peace, must be a specific renewal and confirmation of all treaties, on the same foot, and in as ample a manner, as they had subsisted before the troubles began. His eminence was extremely disturbed and embarrassed, and gave the strongest assurances, that the British plenipotentiaries might depend upon the same steadiness and fidelity, on the part of France, to support them in the discussion of their just rights, as she had shewn in the whole course of the negotiations. But they being too well apprised of the artful designs of Chauvelin, to keep the pretensions of England in an unsettled state, and in a manner at the mercy of France, and of the great power and influence he had gained with the cardinal, which they plainly intimated to his eminence, gave him to understand, that they could by no means be satisfied with his plausible declaration and assurances; and left him in a very peevish and discontented mood, without coming to any determination, until his majesty's sentiments and instructions upon this subject should be known." P. 167.

By his influence with the cardinal, Mr. Walpole settled a treaty, equally clear, explicit, and honourable. The emperor, thus disgusted with their Most Catholic and Christian majesties, renewed his connexion with England.

Mr. Walpole's embassy now terminated; but he refused accepting the office of secretary of state on lord Townshend's resignation, as he afterwards refused every ostensible office in administration from delicacy to his brother, lest it should appear that one family engrossed too much—the popular odium against sir Robert requiring no increase. We shall add Mr. Walpole's reflexions on the conclusion of the imperial treaty.

"Thus the situation of affairs in Europe, which had been flung into the greatest convulsions by the wild and extravagant projects of enterprising ministers, to flatter and satisfy the pride and ambition of certain powers, was, by the firm and prudent conduct of his majesty, brought back to a calm and natural state, without the calamities of a general war. And notwithstanding the impotent efforts of pretended and discontented patriots, to vilify an administration whose employments they wanted, joined with a desperate clan of disaffected Jacobites, to distress a government they would gladly subvert, no prince was ever in a higher point of glory and respect, from all foreign powers, for the steadiness and wisdom of his measures, than his majesty was at this juncture; nor any ministers in greater credit and esteem abroad, than those who were employed in the direction and execution of these measures." P. 173.

When the contest for the Polish crown induced the emperor to diminish the garrisons of the barrier towns, the States-general were in some degree compelled to conclude a treaty of neutrality with France—a measure which was supposed to be

highly injurious to the interests of this country: and Mr. Walpole was sent to the Hague (at first privately, though he afterwards continued there as ambassador), to lessen, as far as possible, the inconvenience.

Of this negotiation we need not give any account, as it is now uninteresting. We may remark, however, Mr. Walpole's address in taking any share of blame that might otherwise have fallen on sir Robert, and the manly judicious tone of his correspondence with queen Caroline. The minuter politics respecting the stadtholder and the princess of Orange are of still less importance.

In this part of the work we see the first traces of a disposition in the English monarch to persist in his connexion with the emperor in opposition to Prussia. The enmity of the latter to George I. is well known. It was continued with unabated virulence by George II, and was the source of numerous misfortunes to this kingdom. Mr. Walpole, partly from this motive, resigned his employment at the Hague; and the nation was at last engaged in a war to support the empress queen—

— Delirant reges, plectuntur Achivi.

Mr. Walpole was earnest, 'in season and out of season,' to oppose this predilection for the imperial cause; and it is the leading feature of the remainder of his political career. We cannot resist transcribing the following passage. It relates to the period when Maria Teresa was attacked on all sides, in a manner so unprovoked as to excite the warmest indignation in the English nation.

'The situation of England was highly alarming. In the midst of an unsuccessful war with Spain, on the eve of a war with France, disunited from Prussia and the protestant princes of the empire, without prospect of assistance from the Dutch or the northern powers, and loaded with the support of a sinking ally, who, in the lowest state of weakness and degradation, retained the haughtiness and obstinacy of past grandeur, the minister deeply felt the difficulties with which he was surrounded: he acknowledged the justice and policy of preventing the dismemberment of the Austrian dominions; but was aware that England and Austria alone could not resist the combination of the principal European powers. He therefore saw the necessity of an immediate accommodation between Austria and Prussia, and urged the court of Vienna to accede to the demands of Frederick. But he was, at the same time, driven by the impulse of the nation, to propose a grant of 300,000*l.* to the queen of Hungary.

'At this crisis Mr. Walpole forwarded the views of his brother, and, in a letter to the duke of Cumberland, records an anecdote which proves that the obstinacy of Maria Theresa was occasioned by the arts of opposition, and the ill-judged enthusiasm of the British nation. "At the request of lord Orford, a person (alluding to him-

self) having represented to count Ostein, the Austrian minister in London, the great advantages or fatal consequences of agreeing or disagreeing with Prussia, that minister promised to lay what was urged before his court in favour of the propositions of Prussia. At the same time the parliament had voted 300,000*l.* for enabling his majesty to make good his engagements with the queen of Hungary; and a certain great man, then in opposition, told count Ostein, that the subsidy did not proceed from the good disposition of the ministry, but was extorted by the general voice of the parliament and people. The Austrian minister accordingly changed his sentiments and language, and encouraged his court not to agree with Prussia; because England would spend the last drop of blood, and the last penny of money, in support of the queen of Hungary. The result was, that she obstinately rejected the alliance with Prussia, who entered into the measures of France." P. 223.

The letters of Mr. Walpole at this time are very interesting; but the circumstances are sufficiently known, and they will not admit of abridgement. We find the speeches published as his, and preserved in Chandler, are printed verbatim from his own copies.

The king's German prejudice, the debates occasioned by the proposed dismissal of the Hanoverian troops, the violent opposition to lord Carteret, and the threatened invasion from France, fill up the latter part of the year 1743, and the beginning of 1744. The year 1745 we expected to have found very interesting, but were greatly disappointed. We see not the slightest novelty either of fact or reflection: instead of which we find only a few trifling querulous letters, and one of these rather relating to German and Dutch politics, than to the situation of England. The struggles and contentions for power in the different candidates for the principal offices of administration are detailed with a tedious minuteness.

The successes of the French at last alarm Mr. Walpole, and sink him to despondency. He again renews his attack respecting the alliance with Prussia, and addresses his proposals to the duke of Cumberland. Of the talents, the attention, and the spirit of this prince, we find a very favourable impression conveyed, and perhaps by no means an unjust one. His success at Culloden had made him unpopular with a large party; and his failure at Closter-Seven had furnished some foundation to those who wished to depreciate his military talents. The negotiation with the duke of Cumberland was ineffectual; and the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle revived a little the spirits of the veteran politician, who contributed to correct some errors which had escaped the negotiators in the preliminaries.

The party of the prince of Wales is now introduced, but in these Memoirs makes a very inconsiderable figure. Indeed, were the minuter history of politics to be judged of by these re-

presentations, we should think the Leicester-house party perfectly insignificant. But we have already expressed our disinclination to engage in these subjects.

From the year 1748 to 1751, the king's prejudices in favour of Austria are again brought forward, in the attempts to procure, for the archduke Joseph, the dignity of king of the Romans, a necessary step to his attainment of the imperial title and power. This renews Mr. Walpole's opposition, and revives his attempts in favour of the Prussian alliance. On the alliance he addresses a memorial to the king—though, as may be expected, with little success, since, added to the king's prejudices, the attempt does not obtain the approbation of Mr. Pelham. The speech in opposition to the subsidising Bavaria is an admirable one. Nothing but obstinacy, the most rooted, could have prevented its success. On the whole, every part of this period is satisfactorily treated. Mr. Walpole supported the marriage-act, and suggested some doubts of the expedience of continuing the archbishop's power to grant special licences. This produces an excellent letter from Dr. Herring, in which we perceive some little indignation, though not urged beyond proper bounds.

“ Dear Sir,

Lambeth-house, May 17, 1753.

“ If the following letter be considered as wrote to a senator, I am sensible it were impertinent, if not presumptuous ; if as to a friend, it will plead a title to his indulgence.

“ I heard a little of the debate in the house of commons on Monday last, and have conceived hopes, from the issue of it, that the bill against clandestine marriages will return to the lords, and receive the confirmation of the legislature. There is one clause in it, reserving a part of the archbishop of Canterbury's prerogative, as to granting special licences, which it seems was natural to think would give room for observation ; and indeed very justly, as the power there reserved, if not lodged in safe hands, might, in a great measure, defeat the good effect of the whole bill. I was told that you was pleased to make that observation, and to enlarge upon the mischievous consequences just now suggested.

“ By the favour of the king I am now entrusted with the execution of that power ; and if I found it detrimental to the public, or at all likely to interfere with the good designs of this act, should be ashamed to appear as an advocate for its continuance.

“ The design of the legislature, in leaving such a power in being, is very apparent by the constant use and application of it ; and I suppose, as it was judged proper to preserve it, it was thought it could no where be so safely lodged as in the hands of one, whose high station and character must put him above all corruption, and who received no emolument to himself from the issuing of those licences. Practice has confirmed the wisdom of that parliament in this respect ; and I question whether the registers of the office

afford a single instance of a mischievous and corrupt abuse of this power, in the hands of the archbishops, since the reformation. I am told they do not.

“ You know me very well, sir, and how little my nature carries me to aim at high powers and prerogatives; and yet, when I find them vested in my character, never abused by my predecessors, nor by myself, it would not, perhaps, sit so easy upon me, to find myself divested of them without some very great and important reason; much greater, and more important, than a possibility (for probability there is none from past times,) that the powers may come to be abused. I think it would not shew much loftiness of spirit to be a little anxious to guard against such indignity, which would be the more apparent too, if, to obviate the mischief of clandestine marriages, it should be found necessary, in the same act, to put a stop to the scandalous practices at May Fair and the Fleet, and guard against the corruptions of the archbishop of Canterbury's prerogative. It would naturally hurt an archbishop to see his court classed with such infamous company.

“ I take the liberty, sir, to suggest these few things to you in the character of a friend. Senators must be above all partialities; and yet, as the world goes, and always has gone, there are a thousand circumstances in the conduct of public affairs, which will admit of great indulgences in point of time, and a manner of doing what is right. She might deserve to be taken down; but it was a mortification to the poor bird in the fable, that the arrow which wounded her was fledged from her own wing. There are times, indeed, when friendship becomes criminal by its influence: but those are times of deep moment; in the common affairs of life, there is great room for her operation.

“ I am afraid, dear sir, you will think me much too serious in this matter; but I write only to yourself, and if you think it will be impossible, as a good patriot, to acquiesce in this power being left vested in the see of Canterbury, I shall applaud your integrity, but shall not help wishing that the blow had come from some other hand; and shall look upon it as an infelicity, that this diminution of the honour of the see should happen when I was possessed of it, and without any instances of corruption proved, or, that I can hear, alleged, either in the times of my predecessors or my own.” P. 406.

In the latter part of the life of Mr. Pelham, some coolness seemed to take place between him and Walpole. The death of the minister opened however new views—

‘ ——— Major rerum nascitur ordo ;’

for we now, for the first time, meet with the names of Pitt and Fox—mostly, as in a posterior period, opposed to each other. It is however neither the Pitt nor the Fox of the present day; and we shall select from our author a short character of each.

‘ Mr. Fox inherited a strong and vigorous constitution, was profuse and dissipated in his youth, and, after squandering his private patrimony, went abroad to extricate himself from his embarrass-

ments. On his return he obtained a seat in parliament, and warmly attached himself to sir Robert Walpole, whom he idolised, and to whose patronage he was indebted for the place of surveyor-general of the board of works. In 1743 he was appointed one of the lords of the treasury, and in 1746 secretary at war, which office he now filled. His marriage, in 1744, with lady Caroline Lennox, daughter of the duke of Richmond, though at first displeasing to the family, yet finally strengthened his political connections. He was equally a man of pleasure and business, formed for social and convivial intercourse; of an unruffled temper and frank disposition. No statesman acquired more adherents, not merely from political motives, but swayed by his agreeable manners, and attached to him from personal friendship, which he fully merited by his zeal in promoting their interests. He is justly characterised, even by lord Chesterfield, "as having no fixed principles of religion or morality, and as too unwary in ridiculing and exposing them." As a parliamentary orator, he was occasionally hesitating and perplexed; but, when warmed with his subject, he spoke with an animation and rapidity which appeared more striking from his former hesitation. His speeches were not crowded with flowers of rhetoric, or distinguished by brilliancy of diction; but were replete with sterling sense and sound argument. He was quick in reply, keen in repartee, and skilful in discerning the temper of the house. He wrote without effort or affectation; his public dispatches were manly and perspicuous, and his private letters easy and animated. Though of an ambitious spirit, he regarded money as a principal object, and power only as a secondary concern.

Mr. Pitt, at an early period of his life, suffered extremely from the attacks of an hereditary gout; hence, though fond of active diversions, and attached to the sports of the field, he employed the leisure of frequent confinement in improving the advantages of his education, and in laying the foundation of extensive and useful knowledge, which he increased during his travels by an assiduous attention to foreign history and foreign manners. He is generally represented as of a haughty, unbending and imperious temper, and too proudly conscious of his own superior talents; but they who thus characterise him are ill acquainted with his real disposition. The repeated attacks of a painful disorder did not sour his temper, but rendered him more susceptible of the comforts of domestic, and the pleasures of social life. He was an agreeable and lively companion, possessed great versatility of wit, adapted to all characters and all occasions; excelled in epigrammatic turns, and light pieces of poetry, and even condescended to join in songs of mirth and festivity.

P. 409.

It is difficult to describe the precise characteristics of his parliamentary eloquence; his speeches were not so remarkable for methodical arrangement and logical precision, as for boldness of language, grandeur of sentiment, and the graces of metaphorical and classical allusion. They were not, however, distinguished by a continued glow of animated language, but illuminated with sudden

flashes of wit and eloquence, which have been compared to the transient and dazzling splendor of lightning. "His invectives," to use the words of a contemporary statesman, "were terrible, and uttered with such energy of diction, and stern dignity of action and countenance, that he intimidated those who were the most willing and the best able to encounter him. Their arms fell out of their hands, and they shrunk under the ascendant of his sublime genius."

'Among his eminent qualifications as an orator, that of turning his vindication into an attack, and from the defender becoming the accuser, was not the least conspicuous. Another excellence, not generally attributed to him, he also displayed in an eminent degree; the art of explaining what he had uttered with too much warmth, and of soothing the person whom he wished to conciliate.' P. 411.

Since the party of Leicester-house was no more, the duke of Cumberland rose greatly in influence and consequence. Each was necessary to conduct the vessel of government, when the sea was agitated by the youthful violence of these contending statesmen. American affairs then began to force themselves on the minister's notice; and in this perplexity the king was determined to go to Hanover. Nothing could prevent the execution of the latter plan; and the duke was left at the head of the regency, 'without sufficient power to act a decisive part in case of emergency.'

On the publication of Mallet's edition of lord Bolingbroke's works equally hostile to religion and government, Mr. Walpole engaged to offer the antidote to the poison, by answering the latter part of the *Letters on the Study of History*. In politics, our author endeavours to unite the two rival orators, and his opinions of these active candidates for power we shall select.

'At one period the two rival orators seem to have arranged their respective pretensions; Mr. Fox was to be placed at the head of the treasury, and Mr. Pitt to have the seals of secretary of state. But this agreement was of short duration: Mr. Pitt was incensed, because his rival was admitted into the cabinet, and appointed one of the lords of the regency, and in May declared that to accept the seals from Mr. Fox would be owning his superiority, and that their connection was at an end.

'Mr. Walpole was deeply concerned at this fatal struggle between two persons with whom he was equally connected. He had long acted with Mr. Fox in the support of government; he knew his capacity for business, and accommodating temper. In regard to Mr. Pitt, the antipathy arising from his former opposition to the administration of sir Robert Walpole had wholly subsided; Mr. Walpole appreciated his talents, admired his eloquence, and had strongly enforced, in the closet, the propriety of appointing him to the office of secretary at war. A co-incidence of opinion concerning the German subsidies, and the conduct of foreign affairs, had still further cemented their intimacy: he speaks of the great orator, in several of his letters, in high terms of regard and esteem; he submitted

to his inspection several memorials and papers, and the answers of Mr. Pitt testify the high opinion which he entertained of Mr. Walpole. Though Mr. Walpole disapproved the virulence of his opposition, yet he considered him as the only person who, from his independent spirit and energy of character, was capable of over-ruling the wavering counsels of a divided cabinet, and directing the efforts of the nation with vigour and effect in the approaching war with France.' p. 439.

The political changes subsequent to this period are well known; and we find no additional views of sufficient importance to induce us to enlarge our article. Mr. Walpole was sincerely affected with the inefficient measures of administration; but did not live to see the more brilliant æra under the guidance of Mr. Pitt; for he died on the 5th of February 1757.

'Lord Walpole' (for he was created a peer in 1756), 'in his person, was below the middle size; he did not possess the graces recommended by lord Chesterfield as the essential requisites of a fine gentleman; and his manners were plain and unassuming. Notwithstanding his long residence abroad, he was careless in his dress; though witty, he was often boisterous in conversation, and his speech was tinged with the provincial accent of Norfolk. But these trifling defects, which the prejudices of party highly exaggerated, and which rendered his personal appearance unprepossessing, he was, himself, the first to ridicule. He was frequently heard to say, that he never learnt to dance, that he did not pique himself on making a bow, and that he had taught himself French.

'He was by nature choleric and impetuous; a foible which he acknowledges in a letter to his brother: "You know my mother used to say that I was the most passionate, but not the most positive child she ever had." He corrected, however, this defect so prejudicial to an ambassador; no one ever behaved with more coolness and address in adapting himself to circumstances, and in consulting the characters and prejudices of those with whom he negotiated. Notwithstanding his natural vivacity, he was extremely placable, and easily appeased. He behaved to those who had reviled his brother's administration, and derided his own talents and person, with unvaried candour and affability; and no instance occurs of his personal enmity to the most violent of his former opponents.

'In conversation he was candid and unassuming; and communicated the inexhaustible fund of matter, with which his mind was stored, with an ease and vivacity which arrested attention. In the latter part of his life he fondly expatiated on past transactions, removed the prejudices of many who had been deluded by the misrepresentations of party, and induced several of his former opponents candidly to confess their errors.' p. 463.

His conduct in private life was irreproachable; his religion and integrity unimpeached. Though in general economical, yet, in his public capacity, he was dignified and liberal; inde-

fatigable in business, which he always endeavoured to finish before his dinner hour; intimately acquainted with ancient and modern history; and well informed on commercial subjects: his private correspondence with the king and the ministers, on every point of importance—for he never joined the phalanx of any opposition—reflects the highest credit on his judgement and temper. Many of his letters are preserved in the present volume, which is, on the whole, highly interesting, and merits our warmest commendation.

ART. II.—*Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape, in the Years 1798 and 1799.* By Joseph Acerbi. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Mawman. 1802.

A Mysterious cloud hangs over these volumes. No little heroism is necessary to lead the native of Italy to the ruder regions of the north; but to find an Italian describing scenes of beauty and grandeur, in English equally pure and fluent—to follow the reflexions of the politician and the philosopher of the south of Europe, without detecting the sentiments or language of democracy or despotism—is perhaps still more extraordinary. Where impressions have been deeply fixed, they mingle insensibly with every other idea; but, in general, Mr. Acerbi appears—in politics, philosophy, and religion—liberal, candid, and correct. We must therefore not attempt to draw aside the veil, except in one of the difficulties mentioned, where he slightly lifts the curtain himself.

‘It may possibly excite curiosity to know, why a native of Italy, a country abounding in all the beauties of nature, and the finest productions of art, should voluntarily undergo the danger and fatigue of visiting the regions of the Arctic circle.

‘He promised to himself, and he was not disappointed, much gratification from contrasting the wild grandeur and simplicity of the north, with the luxuriance, the smiling aspect, and the refinements of his own country. He was willing to exchange, for a time, the beauties of both nature and art, for the novelty, the sublimity, and the rude magnificence of the northern climates. Nor was it probable that such a contrasted scene would prove barren of instruction, or be destitute of amusement. There is no people so far advanced in civilisation, or so highly cultivated, who may not be able to derive some advantage from being acquainted with the arts and sciences of other nations, even of such as are the most barbarous.’ P. vii.

Our author enters Sweden, from the Sound, at Helsinburg, opposite Elsinour; proceeds to Gottenburg; and, after visiting the falls of the Gotha and the canal of Trolhätta, passes between Lake Wennern and Lake Wetter, through Western Gothland, the province of Nerike and that of Sudermania to Stockholm. To seek for faults is an office that we despise; and not to com-

commend cheerfully where there is room for commendation, is equally cynical and unjust: yet when a map is prefixed, and one in whose praise panegyric has been lavish, we *must* remark, that we find in this part of the journey no assistance. The scale might have been a little contracted, to have admitted Helsingburg;—at least Gottenburg might have been introduced in the margin. In the map itself the Gotha should have been distinguished; and the canal of Trolhätta, with the falls of the Gotha required only the words to be written. Again: In the journey we are told of Westernland; but few know that *West Gotbland* has sometimes this appellation; and fewer will discover the province of Nerike in other maps under the term of Nericia; while Sudermania as well as Nericia are not mentioned in that purposely designed to illustrate the journey. The union of Lake Hielmar with Lake Wennern is noticed as a work of utility; but though Lake Hielmar appears in its proper position, no name is affixed. The islands round Stockholm are described, but in the map not one is distinguished by an appellation. To conclude our censures—for it is an unpleasing task—we may say, with respect to the entire chart, that unless the reader be little anxious about the country described—so sparing has the engraver been of words—he must have recourse to the labours of other geographers. To return however to the traveler, who will recompense us by the accuracy and spirit of his descriptions for the defects of his geographic associate.

Mr. Acerbi crosses, from Stockholm, the eastern angle of Up-land, embarks at Grislehamn, visits the islands of Aland, and closes his voyage at Abo in Finland. Here we find the map somewhat more explicit, and his journey is laid down *sometimes* clearly and intelligibly. From Abo he proceeds, in a direction nearly parallel to the Gulf of Bothnia, to Wasa, where he embarks for Uleaborg, nearly at its north-east curvature. He passes round this extremity by land, and arrives at Tornea. As it was summer, the rivers afforded a more easy conveyance, and chiefly by their assistance he reached the North Cape.

In the whole of this tour we find judicious and accurate descriptions, interspersed with lively and agreeable remarks. We must hasten over it more rapidly than we wish, since to follow Mr. Acerbi very minutely would detain us too long.

After some judicious reflexions on the manner of traveling in Sweden, and remarks on those who have so highly commended it, the author speaks of the cataracts of the Gotha, and the canal designed to avoid them. Stockholm is particularly described; and the characters of the literary men of Sweden delineated at some length, and with sufficient impartiality. On this point, however, we occasionally find reason to differ from him. The anecdotes of Linnæus are new; but the extreme vanity attributed to him gives us pain. Less flattered than Buffon, he

seems equally accessible to flattery, and never to have found the draught too sweet, however fulsome it seemed to spectators. The society at Stockholm, the manners and amusements, are detailed in a very interesting and agreeable manner. On statistic subjects our traveler is professedly less copious than Mr. Coxe, who is accused by the Swedish literati of wrapping himself in an impenetrable reserve, and catching at every kind of information, without attempting to offer any in return. It is with great regret that we must remark the progress of mysticism and superstition in Stockholm, even at this time. The press is under the most despotic restraint.

To turn, however, from objects well known, to those which are less so, we shall transcribe from our author the account of his passage over the Gulf of Finland in sledges. It is truly singular and interesting.

‘ I laid my account with having a journey more dull and unvaried than surprising or dangerous. I expected to travel forty-three miles without sight of land over a vast and uniform plain, and that every successive mile would be in exact unison and monotonous correspondence with those I had already travelled; but my astonishment was greatly increased in proportion as we advanced from our starting-post. The sea, at first smooth and even, became more and more rugged and unequal. It assumed, as we proceeded, an undulating appearance, resembling the waves by which it had been agitated. At length we met with masses of ice heaped one upon the other, and some of them seeming as if they were suspended in the air, while others were raised in the form of pyramids. On the whole they exhibited a picture of the wildest and most savage confusion, that surprised the eye by the novelty of its appearance. It was an immense chaos of icy ruins, presented to view under every possible form, and embellished by superb stalactites of a blue green colour.

‘ Amidst this chaos, it was not without difficulty and trouble that our horses and sledges were able to find and pursue their way. It was necessary to make frequent windings, and sometimes to return in a contrary direction, following that of a frozen wave, in order to avoid a collection of icy mountains that lay before us. In spite of all our expedients for discovering the evenest paths, our sledges were every moment overturned to the right or the left; and frequently the legs of one or other of the company, raised perpendicularly in the air, served as a signal for the whole caravan to halt. The inconvenience and the danger of our journey were still farther increased by the following circumstance. Our horses were made wild and furious, both by the sight and the smell of our great pelices, manufactured of the skins of Russian wolves or bears. When any of the sledges was overturned, the horses belonging to it, or to that next to it, frightened at the sight of what they supposed to be a wolf or bear rolling on the ice, would set off at full gallop, to the great terror of both passenger and driver. The peasant, apprehensive of losing his horse in the midst of this desert, kept firm hold of the bridle, and suffered the horse to drag his body through masses of ice, of which some sharp points threatened

to cut him in pieces. The animal, at last wearied out by the constancy of the man, and disheartened by the obstacles continually opposed to his flight, would stop; then we were enabled to get again into our sledges, but not till the driver had blindfolded the animal's eyes: but one time, one of the wildest and most spirited of all the horses in our train, having taken fright, completely made his escape. The peasant who conducted him, unable any longer to endure the fatigue and pain of being dragged through the ice, let go his hold of the bridle. The horse relieved from this weight, and feeling himself at perfect liberty, redoubled his speed, and surmounted every impediment. The sledge, which he made to dance in the air, by alarming his fears, added new wings to his flight. When he had fled to a considerable distance from us, he appeared from time to time as a dark spot which continued to diminish in the air, and at last totally vanished from our sight. Then it was that we recognised the prudence of having in our party some spare horses, and we were fully sensible of the danger that must attend a journey across the Gulf of Bothnia without such a precaution. The peasant, who was the owner of the fugitive, taking one of the sledges, went in search of him, trying to find him again by following the traces of his flight. As for ourselves, we made the best of our way to the isles of Aland, keeping as nearly as we could in the middle of the same plain, still being repeatedly overturned, and always in danger of losing one or other of our horses, which would have occasioned a very serious embarrassment. During the whole of this journey we did not meet with, on the ice, so much as one man, beast, bird, or any living creature. Those vast solitudes present a desert abandoned as it were by nature. The dead silence that reigns is interrupted only by the whistling of the winds against the prominent points of ice, and sometimes by the loud crackings occasioned by their being irresistibly torn from this frozen expanse; pieces thus forcibly broken off are frequently blown to a considerable distance. Through the rents produced by these ruptures, you may see below the watery abyss; and it is sometimes necessary to lay planks across them, by way of bridges, for the sledges to pass over.' Vol. i. p. 184.

The islands of Aland are healthy and well peopled. The cold is said to have increased during the late years: in 1546 it was remarked, as a singular occurrence, that the sea was frozen over. The Alanders are good seamen, and represented, on the whole, as ingenious, active, and courteous. Their lives are regular, and they are far from superstitious: they are accused, however, of being litigious. The animals of Aland are numerous, but not uncommon. Their Flora contains 680 plants. The rock is red granite.

Our author now advances to Finland; and as the summer was approaching, traveling was, after some weeks, less easy. The roads were muddy and often impassable; but the rivers were of course open, and relieved the unavoidable fatigue which must have been otherwise incurred. Mr. Acerbi, we have said, landed at Abo, which is a town of some importance in a commercial view, is

the see of a bishop, and boasts of a university of considerable credit. In 1791 it contained 8504 inhabitants. From Abo to Yervenkyle, the country is flat and uninteresting; but the interior of a Finland peasant's hut offers a picture not very common.

‘ The houses of the peasants are well built, and the stranger finds every where lodging and beds; and he may be tolerably accommodated, if he have the precaution to carry some conveniences along with him. You are received with great hospitality; the peasant furnishes you with whatever he has got to eat, though, in general, he can only offer you fresh and curdled milk, salt herrings, and perhaps, as before mentioned, a little salt meat. In comparison with those who travel among them they are poor, but in relation to themselves they are rich, since they are supplied with every thing that constitutes, in their opinion, good living. If they have more money than they have immediate use for, they lay it up for some unforeseen emergency, or convert it into a vase, or some other domestic utensil. You must not be surprised in Finland, if in a small wooden house, where you can get nothing but herrings and milk, they should bring you water in a silver vessel of the value of fifty or sixty rix-dollars. The women are warmly clad; above their clothes they wear a linen shift, which gives them the air of being in a sort of undress, and produces an odd though not disagreeable fancy. The inside of the house is always warm, and indeed too much so for one who comes out of the external air, and is not accustomed to that temperature. The peasants remain in the house constantly in their shirt sleeves, without a coat, and with but a single waistcoat; they frequently go abroad in the same dress, without dread either of rheumatism or fever. We shall see the reason of this when we come to speak of their baths. The Finlanders, who accompany travellers behind their sledges, are generally dressed in a kind of short coat made of a calf's-skin, or in a woollen shirt, fastened round the middle with a girdle. They pull over their boots coarse woollen stockings, which have the double advantage of keeping them warm, and preventing them from slipping on the ice.

‘ The interior of the peasant's house presents a picture of considerable interest. The women are occupied in teasing or spinning wool for their clothing, the men in cutting faggots, making nets, and mending or constructing their sledges.’ Vol. i. p. 218.

The dreary prospect was enlivened by a beautiful Aurora Borealis, which emulated, in the brilliance of its tints, an Italian sun at the period of setting. The cold, however, at the end of March was 13° of Celsius—about 9° of Fahrenheit. The description of the cataract in the neighbourhood of Yervenkyle deserves particular notice.

‘ It is formed by the river Kyro, which, issuing from a lake of the same name, precipitates itself through some steep and rugged rocks, and falls, so far as I could guess, from a height of about seventy yards. The water dashing from rock to rock, boils and foams till it reaches the bottom, where it pursues a more tranquil course, and after making a large circuit loses itself again between mountainous banks,

which are covered with fir-trees. That we might have a more commanding view of the picture, we took our station on a high ground, from which we had a distant prospect of a large tract of country of a varied surface, and almost wholly covered with woods of firs, the pleasing verdure of which acquiring additional lustre from the solar rays, formed an agreeable contrast with the snow and masses of ice hanging from the margin over the cascade.

'The fall presented us with one of those appearances which we desired much to see, as being peculiar to the regions of the north, and which are never to be met with in Italy. The water, throwing itself amidst enormous masses of ice, which here and there have the aspect of gloomy vaults, fringed with curious crystallizations, and the cold being of such rigour as almost to freeze the agitated waves and vapours in the air, had formed gradually two bridges of ice across the cascade of such solidity and strength, that men passed over them in perfect security. The waves raging and foaming below with a vast noise, were in a state of such violent motion as to spout water now and then on the top of the bridge; a circumstance which rendered its surface so exceedingly slippery, that the peasants were obliged to pass it creeping on their hands and knees.' Vol. i. p. 222.

In general, provisions are cheap in Finland, and the peasantry apparently in comfortable circumstances. They excel in firing with the rifle-gun, and strike the object with exact precision. A singular feature in a Finland forest is the appearance of conflagrations. These may be the effects of accidents; but as they happen very generally in the crown forests, and as the peasants are allowed to use the timber that has been injured by fire, we may reasonably suppose that the flames are not always accidental. The effects of these fires and of the whirlwinds, are well described.

'I saw in this forest the disastrous wreck of one of those conflagrations, which had devoured the wood through an extent of six or seven miles, and which exhibited a most dismal spectacle. You not only saw trunks and large remains of trees lying in confusion on the ground, and reduced to the state of charcoal, but also trees standing upright, which, though they had escaped destruction, had yet been miserably scorched: others, black and bending down to one side, whilst in the midst of the ruins of trunk and branches appeared a group of young trees, rising to replace the former generation; and, full of vigour and vegetable life, seemed to be deriving their nourishment from the ashes of their parents.

'The devastations occasioned by storms in the midst of those forests is still more impressive, and presents a picture still more diversified and majestic. It seems wholly inconceivable in what manner the wind pierces through the thick assemblage of those woods, carrying ruin and desolation into particular districts, where there is neither opening nor scope for its ravages. Possibly it descends perpendicularly from heaven in the nature of a tornado, or whirlwind, whose violence nothing can oppose, and which triumphs over all resistance. Trees of enormous size are torn from their roots, magnificent

pinces, which would have braved on the ocean tempests more furious, are bent like a bow, and touch the earth with their humbled tops. Such as might be thought capable of making the stoutest resistance are the most roughly treated; and those hurricanes, like the thunder of heaven, which strikes only the loftiest objects, passing over the young, and sparing them, because they are more pliant and flexible, seem to mark the strongest and most robust trees of the forest, which are in condition to meet them with a proud opposition, as alone worthy of their rage. Let the reader fancy to himself three or four miles of forest, where he is continually in the presence of this disastrous spectacle; let him represent to his imagination the view of a thick wood, where he can scarcely see one upright tree; where all of them being thus forcibly inclined, are either propped by one another, or broken in the middle of the trunk, or torn from their roots and prostrated on the ground: every where trunks, branches, and the ruins of the forest, interrupting his view of the road, and exhibiting a singular picture of confusion and ruin.' Vol. i. p. 231.

Traveling over the ice, where it still remained, was, however, dangerous, from many partial fractures; and our author describes the difficulties in a pleasing manner. The ice, too, was sometimes so transparent as to discover the bottom of the river when shallow, and its inhabitants in deeper water, giving an alarming picture of the insecurity of the frail support on which they journeyed. Mr. Acerbi accounts for this pellucidity by the wind having swept away the snow, while the sun had melted the inequalities of the ice. A slight error on this subject is excusable in an Italian. In fact, the melted snow fills up the inequalities, and, when again frozen by the returning cold of the night, renders the surface perfectly plane. We have often seen this effect produced in our milder climates.

Wasa is a commercial town, and very flourishing; from which our travelers proceeded, chiefly on the ice, by means of sledges. This method, however, is displeasing. The cavities of the ice are filled by the thawing snow, which give the idea of sinking under the water; and when this fluid is crusted over at night, it will not bear the weight of the sledge. The additional sensation of cracking the ice then increases the horror. The following phenomena are new and curious:

' You meet often in those parts with what may be termed disruptions of the ice, which form a strange picturesque appearance, sometimes resembling the ruins of an ancient castle. The cause of these disruptions is the rocks, which happen to be at the depth of some feet under the surface of the water. During the prevalence of the intense cold, the water freezes frequently three feet or more in thickness; the elevation of the sea is consequently diminished, and sinks in proportion to the diameter of the ice that is formed; then those shelves and rocks overtop the surface, and break the cohesion of the ice, while accident deposits the detached masses and fragments in a thousand irregular forms. It is extremely dangerous to traverse

the ice in those parts during night, unless you have the compass constantly in your hand, and even with it you are not always safe. The traveller is frequently interrupted by those obstacles; he often loses sight of the coast, while the whiteness of the snow dazzles his eyes, and makes it extremely difficult to discern the traces of the sledges which have passed that way before: thus he is in no small danger of losing the road, and of going on in a different direction, which may lead him far in the icy desert; an accident which happened to us more than once.' Vol. i. p. 251.

The account of Uleaborg is very full and satisfactory. The most copious ingredient of its mineral waters is the natron; but they also contain some iron and lime, though in no considerable proportion. The story of the salmon swallowing a silver spoon, 'a fact not more singular than well authenticated,' we must still feel some doubt of, as the salmon is by no means a voracious fish. The fisherman could probably give some better account of the method by which it came to his hands.

The soil in the vicinity of Uleaborg is chiefly sandy; and in the neighbourhood is a copper-mine of some value. In the same neighbourhood, also, iron is frequently discovered; and a black sand impregnated with iron is found on the shore. Though there are some kinds of schisti in this part of the country, the rock is chiefly granite and its varieties. Our author describes, partially and superficially, what he calls the land-ridge: we wish it had been illustrated by his map, which is full only of little lakes and rivers, resembling tadpoles in a microscope, always without a name. We could not recognise the real direction of the Kolen mountains, nor those of Kemi and Olonetz, without the assistance of Hermelin's map. We must remark too, that, in describing minerals, he commonly employs the Linnæan terms, though the mineralogy of the Swedish naturalist is almost obsolete. The extract from the meteorologic journal kept at Uleaborg is curious. We regret, however, that the degrees of Celsius's thermometer are alone employed. We shall endeavour to reduce them to the scale of Fahrenheit. In 24 years, the greatest heats have varied from 31° to 17° of Celsius; that is, neglecting fractions, from 88° to 63° of Fahrenheit. The greatest cold was in 1781 and 1799, viz. 40° below 0, which, by a singular co-incidence, is also 40° below the zero of Fahrenheit. The medium heat is 24° of Celsius, about 76° of Fahrenheit: the medium cold, 30 , = 22 of Fahrenheit. The medium temperature is about the freezing point.

Our travelers made a considerable stay at Uleaborg, seduced by a pleasing society, by the charms of music, and by the sports of the field, particularly shooting. To this indeed they sacrificed a great part of the conveniences of their future journey; for the ice no longer supplied a solid road. In this place they are almost converted to Mesmerism; for the baron, an animal-magnetiser

at Uleaborg, surprises them with his power, which cannot, in their opinion, be owing to collusion. The influence of the northern climate on the manners and habits of the people, as well as the numerous inconveniences of an arctic residence, are considered at some length, with great propriety. The manners of the Finlanders are particularly described. The heat of the baths, which is that of watery vapour, is said to be from 70° to 75° of Celsius—from 158° to 167° of Fahrenheit. The Finlanders will come from this bath, and persevere about any business for some time in the open air, without injury. This, however, is only surprising in appearance; for the violent action of the arterial system, excited by such high degrees of heat, cannot be soon affected by the cold of air, which abstracts the heat slowly.

The runic poetry of the Finlanders is the next subject of attention, and Mr. Acerbi's account of it is both pleasing and satisfactory. As in all rude nations, their poetry is subservient to love, to religion, and to superstition. From the latter circumstance, it is discouraged by the priests; and will probably, in the author's opinion, sink into disuse. The runic poetry, from the Gothic word *runoot*, is alliterative, like the measure of *Pierce Plowman* in English. We shall select a specimen of the Finnish poetry, translated very closely into English verse.

I.

" Oh were my love but here with me!
Cou'd I his well-known person see!
How shou'd I fly to his embrace,
Tho' blood of wolves distain'd his face;
Press'd to my heart, his hand wou'd take,
Tho' 'twere encircled by a snake.

II.

" Those winds that whisper through the wood,
Why is their speech not understood?
They might exchange the lover's pray'r,
And sigh for sigh returning bear.

III.

" Ill-cook'd the rector's meals wou'd be,
Dressing his daughter wait for me;
Whilst kitchen, toilet, I forsake,
And thought of my love only take;
On that alone my care bestow,
My summer's wish, my winter's vow.' Vol. i. p. 319.

Mr. Acerbi and his companions proceed to Kemi and Tornea, towns on the north of the Gulf of Finland, but the former somewhat to the eastward of the latter. The author should, however, have told us that the Kemi river, from which the town is called, has its source from the Kemi mountains, far to the north, whose

altitude is such, that their rivers fall into the North Sea and the Gulf of Finland. We shall endeavour to supply the traveler's deficiency, and give a sketch of the mountains of Sweden and Norway, when we advance farther into the more elevated regions in approaching the North Cape. Already the land assumes a bolder form; and the river Kemi falls over mountains which render its navigation peculiarly dangerous.

‘ The church is an edifice which offers a singular and surprising contrast to a foreigner travelling in this country, where he would not expect to see any public building in the style of regular architecture, and in all respects worthy of one of our own towns. This structure being of stone, must have cost an immense sum, considering the few resources of those poor people, who could easily dispense with such an expensive building, and pray to the Deity as effectually in a wooden temple. The design of this church was made by the academy at Stockholm, and was honoured with the approbation of Gustavus III. It is adorned with a dome or cupola, and three principal entrances, with Doric pillars, and hence has the appearance of a Grecian temple. Placed in those savage regions, in the midst of woods of fir-trees, and contrasted by the scattered, contemptible huts around, it forms a wonderful and striking object.

‘ It is with sincere pain I must here remark, that close to this magnificent temple I entered the hut of a poor Finlander, the diminutive size and external meanness of which had attracted my notice. He was probably the poorest native of Finland I had met in the course of my travels to this place: the space of ground on which his house stood was twelve square feet, and the roof six in height. This unfortunate man had a complaint in one of his hands, which rendered him unfit to gain his livelihood by labour. His wife was making their bread, and had heated the oven to bake it; the bread contained so much straw and so little meal, that in order to make the dough adhere she was obliged to use a wooden frame, such as is employed in making cheese. He had neither field, nor cow, butter, milk, nor animal food, and was existing in the most deplorable condition. I confess the presence of those Doric pillars, contrasted with so much poverty and misery, irritated my feelings to such a degree, that I should not have been sorry to see them a heap of ruins.’ Vol. i. p. 335.

The botanic excursions in this neighbourhood offer some subjects of curious remark, which would, however, detain us too long.

Of Tornea, the description by Maupertuis has always inspired horror. Our author, who saw it in summer, gives a more favourable account; and indeed the terrific statement of the French academician has been frequently considered in the light of a picture greatly overcharged, to enhance his own merits.

‘ The town of Tornea contains a population of scarcely six hundred souls. The houses are almost entirely of a single story, though high enough to exclude the moisture of the snow in winter. The merchants of Tornea inhabit the southern part of the town, which they

have been at pains to embellish, and render as agreeable as possible: they have made a public walk, laid out gardens, planted some trees, and have studied by their industry to compensate for the defects of nature. The obscure days of winter are counterbalanced by the almost continual presence of the sun in summer; and their 48 degrees of cold, to which the mercury falls in one season, are exchanged for 27 of heat, to which it rises in the other; for these are the two extremes of the thermometer that have been observed in Tornea.

‘The town is almost entirely encircled by the river Tornea, which spreads itself here in a majestic stream. The opposite banks present a number of cottages and farm-houses, which the river, when quiet and undisturbed, reflects from its pellucid waters. Northward you see a small elevation, on the top of which stand several wind-mills, and lower down to the north-east are some meadow grounds and cultivated fields. It is commonly from one of those wind-mills that travellers view the sun at midnight in the month of June; but the place most particularly calculated for enjoying this spectacle is the church of Lower Tornea, situated on the isle Biörkön, about a mile from the town. Besides seeing the sun entirely above the horizon at this point of view, the eye commands the environs of Tornea, the two mountains Bakamo and Korpekila, and the town itself, which is built upon the little island, or rather peninsula, of Swensar. The houses, and the church with its steeple, being reflected from the smooth surface of the river, afford a very pleasing picture.’ Vol. i. p. 344.

A curious catalogue of the different travelers who have visited Tornea, to see the sun at midnight, is subjoined. At Jukasjervi, a town to the north-west, a name not to be found in our author's dreary map, several travelers have inscribed their names in a book, with some accompaniment, often curious and interesting.

This country, though in so high a latitude, is not without its comforts, nor devoid of inhabitants greatly superior, in intelligence and resources, to the industrious and honest Finlander. Our author's companions also furnished no little share of intellectual information and entertainment; and the clergy residing in these dreary regions added their hospitality to both. The Flora of the mountain Avasaxa, 15 leagues from Tornea, will be interesting to the botanist.

In the rivers of this region, salmon are caught in plenty. The fish is cut into transverse slices, salted, and, after three days, eaten raw. At the polar circle, they pass in their boats numerous cataracts, against which they are carried by the labour and address of their Finnish boatmen. They soon arrive at the mountain Kittis, celebrated as the last point where Maupertuis concluded his trigonometric operations. On this occasion our author introduces Mr. Swamberg's report on the inaccuracy of the French philosopher's measurement. We shall conclude our article with what Mr. Acerbi calls a ‘few geographical remarks’ on the river Tornea, chiefly respecting its course. The moun-

tains which the author speaks of are those on the western coast, which rise from the southern shores of Norway, and terminate in the high grounds in the neighbourhood of the North Cape.

* The river Tornea proceeds from a lake called Tornea Träsk, as its source. This lake is situated among the mountains which separate Norwegian from Swedish Lapland. From that lake the river also takes its name. It passes in its course near Kengis, where it forms two cataracts, nearly forty feet high. It then approaches the town of Upper Tornea, twists round the little island of Swensar, on which the town of Tornea is situated, and last of all it makes the island of Biörkö, on which stands the church of Lower Tornea. About a mile below Kengis, the waters of the river receive a considerable augmentation by their junction with another river, which has its source among a number of lakes and marshes higher up than Enontekis, and bears the name of Muonio, till it loses itself in its union with the Tornea. The latter, enriched by the Muonio, becomes of a very considerable size on its way to the sea, as it is still farther increased by the tributary streams of some rivulets which issue from the lakes and marshes in its vicinity, and at last it empties itself into the Gulf Bothnia.

* Near Kengis the banks of this river are considerably steeper than about Upper Tornea, and consist partly of a reddish felspar and partly of slates of a blackish colour, whose angles stand edgewise, with an inclination to the south.

* The river Tornea is in general subject to three inundations; namely, one in spring, caused by the dissolution of the ice and snow on the mountains; the second in summer, owing to sudden and violent falls of rains; and the third in autumn, before the setting in of the frost. The greatest breadth of this river, when its waters are of a mean height, is nine hundred, and its common breadth five hundred yards: its greatest depth is ten yards, and its lowest shoal from two to five feet. In winter it is frozen in its whole extent, and the thickness of the ice is from five to sometimes eight feet.' Vol. i. p. 395.

(To be continued.)

ART. III.—*Supplement to the Third Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica, &c. By George Gleig, LL. D. &c. (Concluded from p. 394 of our former Volume.)*

WE now hasten to the conclusion of this Encyclopædia, which has engaged much of our attention, not only from its own merit, but as a work from which we may look backwards to calculate our acquisitions, and forwards, to point out new objects of scientific enterprise.

We rested in our last article at the 'revolution' of France, a subject in which we find that we occasionally differ from authors whom we greatly respect: but to differ in opinion on these

points has been common among men of the best talents and most extensive information. In fact, judgement must be founded on experience; but when circumstances of a nature so very singular—when events little proportioned, or apparently inadequate, to their cause, take place, judgement is necessarily confounded, since it has no analogy from which to derive its decisions. Bonds the most solemn, ties the most sacred, were at once broken; and the spirit thus emancipated was truly 'extravagant and erring.' The oppressions of the French monarchic government, of its aristocratic power, of its military despotism, roused every latent feeling of humanity, and excited the warmest indignation; nor could men of the best intentions, when hurried away by the current of these—in themselves laudable—motives, seize at once the moment when the river began to overflow its boundaries, and become a destructive torrent, instead of a fertilising stream. Various circumstances continued the error thus unintentionally committed; and many, with the highest respect for religion, for social order, and the regular subordinations of government, could not at once check the rapid career which outraged humanity had urged on. This, we confess, was in a great degree our own situation;—we mean it as an apology for some parts of our own conduct;—and wish to add, that, while we cannot look at the French revolution as connected with free-masonry, or the new sect of the illuminated, the conclusion is by no means a remnant of prior violence, nor connected with any opinions we had formed, or may preserve, of the French revolution. It is a historic fact, that must rest on evidence wholly its own. It was said in the preface, that the view of the French revolution was concluded only in the life of Suworow. The conclusion relates to the disgraceful capitulation after the defeat at Marengo. We know it is the height of folly to decide in this place on a point which requires authentic documents, military skill, and deep political sagacity. But we may at least observe, that nothing but the unavoidable destruction of the whole army could have justified the treaty; and we have reason to believe, that, so far from its destruction being unavoidable, the ill effects of the defeat might have been surmounted. William III. sustained many defeats, which he had the prudence and good sense to convert to victories. We shall select, however, our author's opinions on this subject.

' By the most unaccountable infatuation, the Austrian commander in Italy would not believe that the French army of reserve, which was advancing upon him with the usual celerity of the first consul's movements, consisted of more than six thousand men! Instead therefore of marching rapidly to meet them before they could be wholly disentangled from the passes over the Alps, he waited patiently for them in the plains of Marengo. If we may judge of the future by the past, we may surely say that such would not have been the

conduct of Suworow. Even after the two hostile armies met, and fought, on the 10th of July, one of the bloodiest battles of the present war, the success of the French was not such as to intitle them to the acquisitions which were the consequence of their dear-bought victory. The fate of the day was long doubtful; and it was at last decided, not by any extraordinary exertions of the consul, but partly by the provident conduct of general Dessaix, who, with the aid of fresh troops, erected a new battery at a critical point, and at a critical period; and still more by the situation of general Melas, whose faculties, though frequently supported by wine and spirits, are said to have wholly forsaken him in the latter part of the day. When he was in this state, one false movement, which weakened his centre, afforded an opportunity to Dessaix to make a vigorous and successful charge with a body of cavalry that had not yet been engaged.

‘ But even after this defeat, what was the state of the two armies? The Austrians had lost 9000 men, and the French from 12,000 to 14,000: the former, enraged at having had the victory so wrested out of their hands, were eager to renew the contest on the following day; and the latter had obtained only the barren advantage of keeping possession of the field of battle. In such a situation, Suworow would certainly have encouraged the ardour of his men; but the Austrian commander, who complained last year of the field-marshal for being too little sparing of blood, instead of following the example which he had set him at the battle of Trebia, concluded a capitulation unparalleled, we believe, in the annals of war; a capitulation by which he voluntarily surrendered into the hands of the enemy nearly all the fruits of one of the most glorious campaigns recorded in history. We wish not to throw any undue aspersion upon the character of general Melas: we believe him to be a brave man; and such he has been represented to us in various accounts which we have had directly from Germany; but all these accounts agree in representing him likewise as fit, not to have the supreme command of a great army, but only to execute the orders of a superior mind.

‘ In Germany, the gallant Kray has been obliged to retreat before the equally gallant Moreau; but he has wisely not hazarded the consequences of a general action. We say *wisely*; because we have learned from authority which we cannot question, that his army is in a state little better than that of mutiny. To his officers he is in a great measure a stranger; and therefore these gentlemen think themselves at liberty to disobey his orders!’ Vol. ii. p. 635.

The first article which claims our attention after ‘revolution,’ is ‘rice,’ in which we find an account of the cultivation of that esculent in China, from sir G. Staunton. The most interesting intelligence, however, relates to the utility of rice in correcting *sprit* flour;—we suppose what is called in England the flour of melted wheat. Rice is highly useful in this respect, when employed in the proportion of one to ten.

‘ Gum-sandarach, which has been generally conceived the production of a juniper, is now said to be obtained from a species of *thua*. It is the tree which Dr. Shaw, who was unacquainted with its æconomical value, called ‘*cypressus, fructu quadri-*

valvi, equiseti instar articulatis. The gum exudes from the trunk and branches, as the resin from coniferous trees.

On the subject of 'scarlet,' our author's extracts are confined to Beckmann's History of Inventions; and we do not observe that they notice the valuable experiments and observations of Dr. Bancroft.—Under the article of 'Segalien,' the editors mention La Pérouse's imperfect attempt to penetrate the strait, but do not add that a British navigator has proceeded farther, though we apprehend without success. The strait is probably impassable.—The account of the manufacture of grained leather, called 'shagreen,' from professor Pallas, is, we believe, new, and particularly curious. The fact, also, of 'snow' containing a larger proportion of oxygen than common water, is not generally known. To this the acknowledged fertilising quality of snow is attributed. Some additions to the article of 'spinning-machines,' and corrections of that on the 'steam-engine,' are very valuable.

The account of 'vegetable and animal substances' is separated from the chemistry, and introduced, a little unexpectedly, under the article of 'substances.' It is, however, full, elaborate, and correct; nor have we seen any general view of these subjects detailed so ably and comprehensively. There are, however, some peculiarities of opinion, which we may shortly notice, while we give a general abstract of the whole.

The ingredients of vegetables are first specified; and on some of these we might offer remarks, which we shall nevertheless postpone, as more apposite to the review of a publication now in our hands. Camphor, perhaps, is not very properly arranged with the *general* productions of the vegetable kingdom, and gumbenjamin is equally a peculiar and appropriate substance; yet, as the latter is generally enumerated by chemists among the acids, the error, if it be any, is of less importance. The balsam of Peru might perhaps have been with equal propriety mentioned particularly.

The phenomena of vegetation are very clearly and accurately described; and what relates to the food of plants, if not wholly new, is placed in a very correct and scientific light. We early perceive the traces of the author's opinion, which we shall soon notice;—we allude to some change which he thinks is produced in nutritious juices by the powers of the vegetable, to arguments for the ascent of the sap by the action of continuous vessels, the tracheæ of plants, and the more rapid vegetation, in consequence of stimuli. Let us at once step on to the author's doctrine.

'Now it cannot be disputed that several of the phenomena of life in vegetables are incompatible with the laws of mechanics and chemistry. The motion of the sap, for instance, must be produced by the contraction of the vessels; and the contraction of vessels, on the

application of stimuli, is incompatible with the laws of chemistry, because no decomposition takes place; and of mechanics, because a much greater force is generated than the generating body itself possessed. The evolution of the organs of vegetables, the reparation of decayed organs, the formation of new ones to supply the place of the old, the production of seeds capable of producing new plants, the constant similarity of individuals of the same species;—these, and many other well known phenomena, cannot be reduced under mechanical and chemical laws. The cause of life, then, in plants, is a substance (for we can form no conception of an agent which is not a substance) which does not act according to the laws of mechanics and chemistry, and which consequently is not matter. We shall therefore, till a better name be chosen, denominate it the *vegetative principle*.

‘The nature of the vegetative principle can only be deduced from the phenomena of vegetation. It evidently follows a fixed plan, and its actions are directed to promote the good of the plant. It has a power over matter, and is capable of directing its attractions and repulsions, in such a manner as to render them the instruments of the formation, and improvement, and preservation of the plant. It is capable also of generating substances endowed with powers similar to itself. The plan according to which it acts, displays the most consummate wisdom and foresight, and a knowledge of the properties of matter infinitely beyond what man can boast.

‘Metaphysicians have thought proper to divide all substances into two classes, matter and mind. If we follow this division, the vegetative principle, as it is not material, must undoubtedly be ranked under mind. But if consciousness and intelligence be considered as essential to mind, which is the case according to their definition, we cannot give the vegetative principle the name of mind, because it has not been proved that it possesses consciousness and intelligence. It acts indeed according to a fixed plan, which displays the highest degree of intelligence; but this plan may belong, not to the vegetative principle itself, but to the Being who formed that principle. We can conceive it to have been endowed by the Author of nature with peculiar powers, which it must always exert according to certain fixed laws; and the phenomena of vegetation may be the result of this mode of acting. This, as far as we can see, is not impossible. It must be shewn to be impossible by every person who wishes to prove that plants possess consciousness and intelligence; for the proofs of this consciousness can only be deduced from the design which the actions of plants manifest. Those philosophers who have ascribed consciousness and intelligence to plants, have founded their belief principally on certain actions which plants perform on the application of stimuli. But these actions prove nothing more than what cannot be denied, that there exists a vegetative principle, which is not material, and which has certain properties in common with the living principles of animals; but whether or not this vegetative principle possesses consciousness and intelligence, is a very different question, and must be decided by very different proofs. We do not say that the heart of an animal is conscious, because it continues to beat on the application of proper stimuli for some time after it has been separated from the rest of the body.’ Vol. ii. p. 559.

The whole of this representation is judicious and philosophic; and we can freely confess, that we may have hitherto considered plants too strictly as machines—perhaps as a kind of steam-engine, whose motions wholly depend on the decomposition of water. But, though in the lowest scale of life, they so decisively possess the properties of living beings, that perhaps we ought not to regard them in this light, or their actions as the result of natural causes operating on a peculiar organisation. The changes in the fluids which they confessedly absorb are however to be explained from the decomposition of water. We can form no idea of an impelled circulation, without the instrumentality of continuous vessels, which cannot be demonstrated in the tracheæ; and if we admit the action of light as a chemical agent, we shall scarcely want the assistance of a vegetative principle. These were our chief reasons for the opinion we have hitherto held—reasons which are not controverted in this volume. Let us however add, that this is but a partial view of the subject. Much still remains, which this explanation will not reach, and which requires some principle superior to what the mechanic doctrine can supply:—we allude to the production of flowers and seeds, to the reproduction in general of the same species, and to the return of successive offspring to the parent stock when there has been an accidental deviation. ‘Bread’ is an article under this head, and contains some curious and useful intelligence.

Of ‘animal substances’ the account also is full and comprehensive. The more particular knowledge we have obtained of the fibrin, its comprising a larger proportion of azote, and its approaches to organisation, lead us to some imperfect views of the doctrine of assimilation. That the kidneys do more than secrete some excrementitious matters that might be otherwise injurious, our authors have not proved: they think these organs designed to produce some change, because the uric acid is separated by them. But we have no reason to believe that the urea is more than some highly animalised part of the blood, assuming, by the play of affinities, a new form; and when the urine is no longer excreted, we find no change take place in the whole system: if the discharge be not compensated by that of saliva or perspiration, the excrementitious substance is deposited by the serous vessels on some other organ—usually the brain. The authors seem to think that the inhalants do not absorb water: but their view of the subject is partial; and they have neither adduced many of the facts recorded, nor adverted to the different states of the system which influence the absorption. Fluids are not always absorbed; but when a supply of water is necessary to the constitution, the absorbents of the surface certainly act to compensate the defect. The doctrine of assimilation engages much of the attention of the editors; and

their attempt to establish a supreme agent in the direction of the functions of the body is highly commendable. In this portion of the work, also, we meet with a judicious abstract of what has been hitherto published respecting the art of 'dyeing.' The word *substance* is peculiarly comprehensive in our authors' hands.

It is partly from the same necessity which has led to this comprehensive term, viz. the want of a more early and clear arrangement, that the valuable philosophic observations of Dr. Herschel are crowded at the end into articles where they will not be naturally sought; viz. the 'sun' and 'thermometric spectrum.' The authors suppose that his experiments establish the intimate connexion of heat and light, in opposition to some late opinions; but at the time of writing they were not aware of all the circumstances of the experiments or the doubts suggested by other philosophers who had repeated them. Another article, which would not occur to those who seek information, is 'tasteless earth'—the agustine of the chemists, which seems not to have been known to them when the abstract of chemical knowledge was compiled.

Under the article 'tanning,' they give an account of Mr. Desmond's improvements, secured by a patent—improvements a little undervalued by some old tanners whom they consulted. We have it not in our power to appreciate their information; but it seems to depend on this, that the tanner whom they consulted thought the astringent principle combined more perfectly with the leather by *long* steeping in the common *weak* solution;—in more scientific language, that the tanin precipitated the mucilage more perfectly, if combined slowly. This is perhaps true; and the supposed improvement may be found more specious than solid.—A very able and scientific article appears under the title of 'temperament in music,' of which, from its nature and extent, we can offer no analysis. On the new theory brought forward in it, we might make some observations: but we are not clear that we fully comprehend the author's meaning in some passages; and we should be unwilling to blame what, if properly understood, may merit praise. In addition to the account of the 'Templars,' their enormities are apparently confirmed by the abbé Barruel. Of the new sect of 'Theophilanthropists' we shall say nothing; they are hastening to the gulf of oblivion, and we will not detain them.

The article 'thunder' is a very elaborate one, and gives a clear view of that awful occurrence. The author appreciates, also, with more precision than we have yet seen, the different effects of blunt and pointed conductors; nor does he consider the latter to be so useful a preservative as some have supposed. In many cases, the blunt conductors are preferable. In the thunder-storms which we have witnessed striking the earth, it has been singular that they have passed over high hills, and the

pointed pinnacles of vanes, into the lower grounds, attracted seemingly by an adjacent river; and have burst, at least in two instances, through the medium of a tree, whose top was not nearly so high as the hill they passed over. In another instance, the storm passed over a town, and struck the pinnacle of a steeple far below the greater number of houses of which the town consisted.

We find a curious article on 'tinning,' and a judicious abstract of what was known at that time on the subject of Galvanism, under the title of 'torpedo.' Some additions are also made to the former article of 'translation,' chiefly from a work on this subject, published since the third edition of the Encyclopædia.

The 'marine trumpet' is an instrument of great curiosity; but it is of more importance in this place, as it introduces a philosophic theory of music—a subject both curious and interesting, which we would recommend to the reader's particular attention. On the manner of collecting 'turpentine,' we have some additional information in a new article; and on the subject of 'typography,' we have a concise description of Didot's stereographic types, with a fuller one of M. Rochon's machine. There is a good abstract of what was then known of the cow-pox, under its appropriate title; but it is a subject on which we must soon enlarge. The colony of New South Wales engages much of the author's attention; and some judicious remarks are subjoined on the deficiency of a staple manufacture, which must for a long time prevent the increasing prosperity of the colony. On the subject of 'ventilation,' the machine of Abernethy is described, with no very sanguine expectations of its advantages; and on that of 'vision,' Mr. Home's experiments are detailed respecting the supposed action of the ciliary circle. Under the article of 'watch-work,' we have a judicious supplement to what had been before described respecting 'scapements,' delayed in consequence of the writer's indisposition. The 'water-blowing machine,' the theory of which is derived from Venturi, also demands particular attention. The 'weaving loom' of Mr. Miller is an invention of ingenuity; but many improvements must be made before it can become one of practical utility. The 'wool-combing machine' is however a work of greater promise, as the combing of wool is a trade apparently unwholesome. The workmen are sallow and unhealthy, though we do not find their lives much contracted; but if the enervating heat of the fire and the oil, whose fumes must be far from salutary, are not essential in this machinery, the advantages will be considerable. The last article that we can particularly notice is 'engraving on wood,' with some account of the masterly performances of Bewick in this department.

The lives in this last part of the work are apparently fewer, and

in some respects less interesting; but nature, in the production of heroes and philosophers, does not study alphabetic arrangement. We were pleased with the judicious account of 'Ridley' and 'Rienzi;' and we wanted not the author's assistance to draw the parallel between the latter and Bonaparte. The catastrophe is yet to come.—In the additions to the life of 'Rodney,' we find some traits of humanity and benevolence, which will raise him still higher than his naval victories; yet these are almost unexampled, even in the events of continued success. The plans and the successful schemes of the judicious and enterprising Dr. 'Roebuck' are explained with care, as well as his last unfortunate errors. Dr. 'Rutherford,' we are informed, in a short but able biographic sketch, retained the practical chair longer than he wished, to exclude a speculatist who was aspiring to the office. This 'speculatist' was Dr. Cullen: but were Dr. Rutherford present, we could ask him, if the best actions of his long life, if all his practical success, if the whole of his boasted knowledge, united and magnified a thousand fold, were ever comparable, in the slightest proportion, in point of utility, with the introduction of emetic tartar—one very small part of Dr. Cullen's improvements. Yet such was the blossom that envious malignity would have blighted!

The life of 'Saussure' is well detailed, without the fulsome flattery of Sennebier; and due respect is paid to the memory of the industrious Abraham 'Sharp.' Of 'Shebbeare,' 'Spallanzani,' sir James 'Stewart,' and Dr. 'Swinton,' the accounts are discriminated and appropriate. It is not easy to adorn with the graces of novelty, facts so much within the recollection of the moment. Of the industrious and the modest 'Tassie,' of the learned and diffident 'Tschirnhaus,' we knew less; and these lives are singularly well written, and peculiarly interesting. With dean 'Tucker' we were better acquainted; yet we read with pleasure the short and respectful tribute to his memory. Of Mr. 'Tytler,' the amiable defender of an unfortunate queen, the account is highly favourable. We respect his character, and admire his work, which we have more than once brought forward to the public view; but we suspect that our authors are a little mistaken, when they represent his as the first instance in which controversy was united with urbanity and decorum;—we, nevertheless, admit that the union was rare. Of Horace 'Walpole,' the representation is not very favourable; but this subject we have hinted at under the guidance of Mr. Coxe. Of Mr. 'Waring,' also, and of Dr. 'Wilkie,' we conceive that the authors do not speak with sufficient respect. Of the former—after quoting his indignant reply to Lalande, who observed that 'there was no first rate analyst in England'—the authors express themselves in the following terms:

The lives in this part of the work are abridged and not full.

By mathematical readers this account, which was not published by the professor himself, is allowed to be very little, if at all, exaggerated. Yet if, according to his own confession, "few thought it worth their while to read even half of his works," there must be some grounds for this neglect, either from the difficulty of the subject, the unimportance of the discoveries, or a defect in the communication of them to the public. The subjects are certainly of a difficult nature, the calculations are abstruse; yet Europe contained many persons not to be deterred by the most intricate theorems. Shall we say then, that the discoveries were unimportant? If this were really the case, the want of utility would be a very small disparagement among those who cultivate science with a view chiefly to entertainment and the exercise of their rational powers. We are compelled, then, to attribute much of this neglect to a perplexity in style, manner, and language; the reader is stopped at every instant, first to make out the writer's meaning, then to fill up the chasm in the demonstration. He must invent anew every invention; for, after the enunciation of the theorem or problem, and the mention of a few steps, little assistance is derived from the professor's powers of explanation. Indeed, an anonymous writer, certainly of very considerable abilities, has aptly compared the works of Waring to the heavy appendages of a Gothic building, which add little of either beauty or stability to the structure.

A great part of the discoveries relate to an assumption in algebra, that equations may be generated by multiplying together others of inferior dimensions. The roots of these latter equations are frequently terms called *negative* or *impossible*; and the relation of these terms to the coefficients of the principal equation is a great object of inquiry. In this art the professor was very successful, though little assistance is to be derived from his writings in looking for the real roots. We shall not, perhaps, be deemed to depreciate his merits, if we place the series for the sum of the powers of the roots of any equation among the most ingenious of his discoveries; yet we cannot add, that it has very usefully enlarged the bounds of science, or that the algebraist will ever find occasion to introduce it into practice. We may say the same on many ingenious transformations of equations, on the discovery of impossible roots, and similar exertions of undoubtedly great talents. They have carried the assumption to its utmost limits; and the difficulty attending the speculation has rendered persons more anxious to ascertain its real utility; yet they who reject it may occasionally receive useful hints from the *Miscellanea Analytica*. Vol. ii. Part ii. p. 765.

The last biographic sketch we shall notice is that of general 'Washington;' but the period is, perhaps, not yet arrived when his character can be appreciated with strict impartiality. The author of this life speaks of him with respect, but with no very high encomium. The following anecdote we shall select as new; and perhaps the reflexions are well founded.

Much has been said by the British and American democrats of the magnanimity of Washington during the ravages of a civil war, in

which he acted so conspicuous a part; and we feel not ourselves inclined to refuse him the praise which he may have merited on this or on any other account. But granting that duty required him to execute as a spy the accomplished André, true magnanimity would have prevented him from insultingly erecting, in the view of that unfortunate officer, the gallows on which he was to be hung, several days before his execution! When earl Cornwallis was overpowered by numbers, and obliged at York-town to surrender to the united armies of America and France, a magnanimous conqueror would not have maliciously claimed, contrary to the usage of civilized war, the sword from the hands of that gallant nobleman. On these two occasions, and on some others, the conduct of Washington agreed so ill with his general character, that we are inclined to believe that he must have been influenced by the leaders of the French army, Rochambeau and Fayette. One thing is certain, that he was so little pleased either with his own conduct on particular occasions, or with the general principle of the American revolution, that he never could be forced to talk on the subject. An Italian nobleman, who visited him after the peace, had often attempted, in vain, to turn the conversation to the events of the war. At length he thought he had found a favourable opportunity of effecting his purpose; they were riding together over the scene of an action where Washington's conduct had been the subject of no small animadversion. Count ——— said to him, "Your conduct, sir, in this action has been criticised." Washington made no answer, but clapped spurs to his horse; after they had passed the field, he turned to the Italian gentleman and said, "Count ———, I observe that you wish me to speak of the war; it is a conversation which I always avoid. I rejoice at the establishment of the liberties of America. But the time of the struggle was a horrible period, in which the best men were compelled to do many things repugnant to their nature." This, we think, is the language of a good man not altogether satisfied with the part which he had been compelled to act, and who, though he rejoiced at the establishment of the *liberties* of America, probably foresaw that she would reap no benefit from her favourite *independence*.' Vol. ii. Part ii. p. 770.

Such are the prominent features of a work which we have endeavoured to sketch with accuracy. Such is the ground from which we purposed to survey the past, and to point out what was most particularly required in future. Our article has, however, increased under our hands, to an extent which we scarcely expected; and we must wait for some other opportunity for an inquiry which, we think, must be interesting, and which, we know, might be rendered useful. The little space that we can further spare must be differently employed.

We need not say to the authors—for the great attention paid to the work speaks sufficiently in its favour—that they have raised a permanent monument to themselves and their country: the body of scientific information collected in these volumes is yet unequalled. They must however be sensible that it still

remains—for reasons they have themselves assigned—in some confusion, and that, to reduce it to order, further care is required. As a new edition of a work so laborious and expensive can scarcely be expected within a few years, we would recommend to them an addition, which will render the present Encyclopædia more complete and convenient;—we mean a descriptive picture (*tableau raisonné*) of science in general, pointing out in each branch its dependence on, and connexion with, every other, and referring in every step to the articles in the dictionary where each is explained. A great defect in this work—the want of references, and another already noticed, the want of a due subordination of the different branches of science—will thus be rectified. The picture may of itself be rendered entertaining and interesting; and it will incorporate the whole in the order best adapted, not only for students, but for those who would consult the Encyclopædia with systematic views. We may also add, that, in this picture, any little deficiencies, and the errors *quos incuria fudit*, may be rectified. If we have taken a correct view of the subject, it would form another quarto volume, which may be rendered interesting even to those who want not its aid for the dictionary, by referring to original writers. This is a work which the authors themselves can alone supply; and we should hear with pleasure that they had undertaken it.

ART. IV.—*A general View of the Agriculture of the County of Northumberland, with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture. By J. Bailey and G. Culley. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.*

THE very unequal value of these county surveys cannot have escaped the most inattentive observer; though many have appeared to the world in an improved form, with the addition of what subsequent inquiries, and the annotations of different agriculturists resident in the county, could furnish. The causes of this inequality have also been lately the subject of some remarks. The present work is not indeed a first sketch; but, apparently without much additional assistance, it contains some valuable information, with a more concise and comprehensive survey of the county, in an agricultural and general view, than we have hitherto seen. Its accuracy is, we trust, equal.

Northumberland, as our readers well know, is bounded on the south-west and south by Cumberland and Durham; on the east by the German Ocean; and on the north and north-west by Scotland. The mountains on its western side furnish a strong barrier between Scotland and England. These have

been, consequently, the scene of many a bloody contest; and the famous Cheviot Hills form the northern point of this mountainous tract, at no great distance from either Percy or Douglas. Two districts which belong to Durham are on the north of this county; viz. Northumberland and Islandshire: another is on the south-east, bordering on the ocean, styled Bedlingtonshire. The reason of this irregularity is not very clear.

The climate, as may be expected from the situation, is cold and extremely variable. The rain advances from the south or south-east; so that the clouds from the Atlantic are intercepted by the Cumberland mountains. The soil on the coast is a strong fertile clayey loam, frequently interspersed with limestone, and may have been gained from the sea. On the south, on the northern banks of the Tyne, the loam is sandy, gravelly, and dry, as far as Newburn: a similar soil pervades the west of the Cheviot Hills from the Allen to its mouth, extending, in the direction mentioned, to Tweed-side, and is observable also in several detached vales. The moist loam is on the east within, the fertile loam on the coast; while the black peat earth prevails in the mountainous districts and the lower parts of the county.

The aspect of this county, in respect to surface, is marked with great variety; along the sea-coast, it is nearly level; towards the middle, the surface is more diversified, and thrown into large swelling ridges, formed by the principal rivers:—these parts are well inclosed; in some places enriched with wood and recent plantations, but the general appearance is destitute of those ornaments:—the western part (except a few intervening vales) is an extensive scene of open, mountainous district, where the hand of cultivation is rarely to be traced.

Of the mountainous districts, those around Cheviot are the most valuable, being in general fine green hills, thrown into a numberless variety of forms, inclosing and sheltering many deep, narrow, sequestered glens: they extend from the head of Coquet down to Allenton; from thence northward to Prendwick, Branton, Ilderton, Wooler, Kirknewton, and Mindrim, and occupy at least an area of 90,000 acres.

The other mountainous districts lie chiefly on the western part of the county, some of which adjoin the county of Durham; but the largest portion extends from the Roman Wall to the river Coquet (with a few intervening inclosed vales) and to the moors north of Rothbury. They are not marked by any striking irregularities of surface, being in general extensive, open, solitary wastes, growing little else but heath, and affording a hard subsistence to the flocks that depasture them. P. 4.

The minerals of this county are numerous and valuable; viz. coal, lime-stone, marl, lead-ore, zinc-ore, iron-stone, free-stone, slates, and grind-stones.

Coal occurs particularly in the lower district, and takes its usual direction, from north-east to south-west. It is singular that it should be almost exclusively found in this line. Our authors' observations on the subject are very correct.

Of the coal found all thro' Bambro' ward, Islandshire, and those parts of Glendale ward east of the river Till, the seams are very thin, mostly from 1 to 3 feet thick, and of a very inferior quality, yielding a great quantity of ashes, and neither caking in the fire nor burning to a cinder: they are used only for home-consumption, and for burning lime; for the latter purpose they are well adapted, by their property of neither caking nor burning to a cinder; and it luckily happens, that thro' all this district, the coal and lime are generally found together; a circumstance which greatly facilitates and lessens the expense of burning lime.

If a line be drawn from Alemouth to a little west of Bywell on the river Tyne, very little of this kind of coal and limestone will be found to the east of it; and from this line to the sea coast, no limestone whatever appears, except a small patch of a different limestone that puts in at Whitley, near Tynemouth, and runs from thence in a south-westerly direction thro' the county of Durham, &c. In this space, betwixt these two ranges of limestone, lie the caking coals of superior quality above described, and the same breadth of coal may be traced thro' the county of Durham, stretching in the same direction, and bounded on the east and west in a similar manner, by stretches of limestone of different kinds.

It would be a curious investigation to trace these minerals thro' the different counties across the island, and show where the strata of each species rise to the surface, and the deviations caused in them by cross veins or dykes, &c. We believe it will be found that very little or no coal lies to the east of this line, and that no chalk lies to the west.' P. 17.

The export of coals is immense; and, from a very probable approximation, it appears that about a million of (London) chaldrons are raised yearly; and the number of people employed in and depending on the coal-trade amounts to nearly 65,000. Mr. Williams, in his Mineralogy, has asserted that the quantity of coals in the kingdom are by no means inexhaustible, and that the attention of the legislature is necessary to control the export. Our authors examine this point, and—by a calculation to which we cannot object—find that, in all probability, the quantity *may* be exhausted in little more than 600 years (the mean between their greatest and least number; viz. 825 and 400 years). This is a sufficiently consolatory prospect; for no calculation can ensure us the benefit of the sun's light for so long a period; and the consumption must, in the event of its loss, be greater. But, to be serious—we noticed Mr. Williams's opinion in our review of his mineralogic work; and adduced, in opposition, not only the uncer-

tain nature of the inquiry, but the immense strata in Lancashire and Somersetshire—probably far exceeding, both in depth and extent, those at Newcastle, and now found of a scarcely inferior quality. Coal is also found in many other places in England, where it is not worked, on account of the expense of raising and carriage not enabling it to stand in competition with the coals of Newcastle and Liverpool; which, however, when the price of these is enhanced, may be worked with advantage, and, by the spirited increase of canals and rail-ways, may probably be rendered very nearly as cheap.

Lime-stone abounds in many parts of the county, and supports the suspicion of its having been derived from water. What is observed of stone marl adds strength to the same idea; and we must remark that Glendale and Wark are on the north of the mountainous ridge, of which we have said the Cheviot Hills form the northern boundary.

‘Stone marl abounds in many places near Tweedside; and shell marl is found in a few places in Glendale ward. The greatest quantity is at Wark and Sunnyslaw, where it has been formed by a deposit of various kinds of shells, both univalve and bivalve, many of which are yet perfect, forming a stratum, several feet in depth, of pure calcareous earth; but the exact depth of this bed of marl has never yet been ascertained, for want of a proper level to carry off the water: it probably may afford matter of speculation to some readers to be informed, that in the middle of this marl there is an horizontal stratum of sand, about 12 inches thick; and also that, a few years since, a *red deer stag*, in the attitude of running, and in every part complete, was found embedded in the marl: horns of the same animal have been found at different times in perfect preservation; and a part of the scalp, with the cores of a pair of horns belonging to some animal of the *bos taurus* species, were lately found here: we have never seen any breed of cattle, the horns of which were of equal magnitude; for though the outside shell or horn part was wanting, yet the core was 24 inches long, and 12 inches circumference at the root; and when in a perfect state, and covered with the outside shell, must have been about 5 inches diameter: their form is a gentle curve, and have all the appearance of a pair of bull's horns; but probably of a different breed of cattle to [from] any we have at present.’ p. 19.

The lead-ore is in the south-west, but very fluctuating in its price. With this the ore of zinc is found, but at too great a distance from water-carriage to render it a valuable production.

The rivers are the Tyne, the Blyth, Wansbeck, Coquet, Allen, and Tweed. The first and last are the principal. The Tyne is formed by two grand branches, called, from their sources, the North and South Tyne; the one rising seemingly from the mountainous north-western tracts of Northumberland; the other from the south-western, or rather from the eastern mountains of Cumberland. The principal branch of the

former is the Reed; of the latter, the Allen (our authors erroneously say the Aln). The Till should be considered as a river of this county, as it arises from the Cheviot Hills, and runs at first westward, and then in a northerly direction, into the Tweed.

‘The Tyne and Tweed are the most eminent for their navigation, the tide flowing up the former 16 miles, and up the latter 8 or 10; the navigation of the other rivers is confined to a small distance from their mouths: of these, the Blyth and Aln are of the most importance, from the convenience which the first affords to its neighbourhood for the exportation of considerable quantities of coals; and both of them for corn, &c. and the importation of timber, iron, and other useful articles.

‘The Tyne and Tweed have been long celebrated for their salmon fisheries: in the latter a rent of 800*l.* a year is paid for a fishing of 200 yards in length, near the mouth of the river; and the same rent is paid for other two fishings above the bridge, not more than 250 yards in length each. The fish taken here are, the salmon, bull-trout, whitling, and large common trout, and nearly the whole of them sent to London; in the conveyance of which, a great improvement has taken place of late years, by packing them in pounded ice; by this means they are presented nearly as fresh at the London market, as when taken out of the river. For the purpose of carrying them, and keeping up a constant and regular supply, vessels called smacks sail three times a week, and being purposely constructed for swift sailing, frequently make their run in 48 hours. These vessels are from 70 to 120 tons burden; on an average 12 men are employed in each vessel, and make about 14 voyages in a year; and not less than 75 boats, and 300 fishermen, are employed in taking the fish in the river Tweed.’ p. 22.

The estates in Northumberland are usually large; in the southern and middle parts, however, there are many from twenty to two hundred pounds *per annum*. Their improvements have been rapid, owing in general to leases and advantageous covenants. The best culturable land is however rated on the average only at 14*s.* per acre, and the mountainous district at 2*s.* The former amounts to about 800,000 acres; the latter to about 450,000.

The farm buildings are improving, but still indifferent. The farmers—as the farms are large, and the capitals of course considerable—are men of education and spirit. Men of 1500*l.* *per annum* follow the occupation, and have sons of the nobility as pupils. Forty shillings per acre seems to be the highest rent. The poor-rates in the county are at about 2*s.* 6*d.* in the pound; in the town, in time of peace, their highest rate was 4*s.* 6*d.*, though lately amounting to six shillings. Of the expenses and profits we cannot give an intelligible abstract.

The chapter on the implements of husbandry is very va-

luable; but the information we cannot easily convey without the plates. The spring plough is in general use; and we have a very neat demonstration of the best method of constructing a plough on mathematic principles, from an essay published by the Robinsons, apparently by the authors. Some other very convenient machines for drilling are described and figured. Threshing machines are common; and we find a short history of the invention in this county, particularly respecting Mr. Meikle's claim, of which we observe frequent mention in the northern surveys. Inclosures of live fences are common in the cultivated parts of this district.

The tillage is various, and the rotation of crops differs according to the soil; but for these details we must refer to the work. The varieties of wheat are well distinguished; and the farmers are fond of changing seed, importing it from the southern counties. Steeping in chamber-lye, and powdering it with quick-lime in order to dry it, is said to be a most effectual preventive of the smut. The practice of drilling in this county is very clearly explained. Rye was formerly sown on all dry sandy light soils; but only the very sandy soils are now employed; as the others, with the assistance of lime, are made to produce turnips and artificial grasses. The rye is the bread of the labouring poor, and is fermented till it becomes acid. Wheat and rye are sometimes mixed; and the bread is said to be superior to that from wheat alone. The other common crops offer no particular subject of remark. The varieties of barley and oats are particularly mentioned; and the history of drilled turnips is subjoined. The crops not commonly cultivated are of very trifling importance. Harvests are in general late. Corn is sometimes on the ground in November.

The grasses are numerous, and the remarks on feeding important. Wood is very valuable, not only in the mines, but for ship-building. The new plantations are said to be numerous and thriving—the larch rising pre-eminently even above the pines. The improvable commons are all inclosed; and inclosures are, in our authors' opinion, generally advantageous. The waste grounds are frequently private property, and properly pastured.

Draining begins to be practised. Paring and burning are not practised except in the midland and southern parts, and confined to coarse and rushy heaths. Our authors seem to think that this practice does not diminish the soil, but that the luxuriant crops which follow exhaust its powers very rapidly. The manures are, farm-yard dung, lime, stone and shell marl, seawrack, and coal-ashes, which seem to be employed with spirit and judgement; but lime is most common. The corn appears to be carefully weeded; and the various weeds are properly

noticed. Watering begins now to be practised, and, by the judicious construction of embankments, the haughs (low flat grounds adjoining the rivers Till and Glen) are rendered highly productive.

The chapter on live stock is peculiarly valuable, as the Northumbrian farmers are active and intelligent breeders. The cattle are, the short-horned, the Devonshire, the long-horned, and the wild breed. The improved breed of the short-horned are with good reason preferred. Of the wild cattle we shall select our authors' account.

‘The wild cattle are only found in Chillingham Park, belonging to the earl of Tankerville; and as it is probable they are the only remains of the true and genuine breed of that species of cattle, we shall be more particular in our description.

‘Their colour is invariably white, muzzle black; the whole of the inside of the ear, and about one-third of the outside from the tip, downwards, red; horns white, with black tips, very fine, and bent upwards; some of the bulls have a thin upright mane, about an inch and an half, or two inches long: the weight of the oxen is from 35 to 45 stone; and the cows from 25 to 35 stone, the four quarters; 14lb. to the stone; the beef is finely marbled, and of excellent flavour.

‘From the nature of their pasture, and the frequent agitation they are put into, by the curiosity of strangers, it cannot be expected they should get very fat; yet the six years old oxen are generally very good beef; from whence it may be fairly supposed that, in proper situations, they would feed well.

‘At the first appearance of any person they set off at full speed, and gallop to a considerable distance; when they make a wheel round, and come boldly up again, tossing their heads in a menacing manner; on a sudden they make a full stop, at the distance of forty or fifty yards, looking wildly at the object of their surprize; but upon the least motion being made, they again turn round, and gallop off with equal speed; but forming a shorter circle, and returning with a bolder and more threatening aspect, they approach much nearer, when they make another stand; and again gallop off; This they do several times, shortening their distance, and advancing nearer, till they come within a few yards, when most people think it prudent to leave them.

‘The mode of killing them was, perhaps, the only modern remains of the grandeur of ancient hunting. On notice being given that a wild bull would be killed upon a certain day, the inhabitants of the neighbourhood came in great numbers, both horse and foot; the horsemen rode off the bull from the rest of the herd until he stood at bay; when a marksman dismounted and shot. At some of these huntings, twenty or thirty shots have been fired before he was subdued; on such occasions, the bleeding victim grew desperately furious, from the smarting of his wounds, and the shouts of savage joy that were echoing from every side: From the number of accidents that happened, this dangerous mode has been seldom practised

of late years; the park-keeper alone generally shooting them with a rifled gun, at one shot.

'When the cows calve, they hide their calves, for a week or ten days, in some sequestered situation, and go and suckle them two or three times a day. If any person comes near the calves, they clap their heads close to the ground, and lie like a hare in form, to hide themselves. This is a proof of their native wildness, and is corroborated by the following circumstance, that happened to the writer of this narrative, who found a hidden calf, two days old, very lean, and very weak; on stroking its head, it got up, pawed two or three times like an old bull, bellowed very loud, retired a few steps, and bolted at his legs with all its force; it then began to paw again, bellowed, stepped back, and bolted as before; but knowing its intention, and stepping aside, it missed me, fell, and was so very weak that it could not rise, though it made several efforts; but it had done enough, the whole herd were alarmed; and, coming to its rescue, obliged me to retire; for the dams will allow no person to touch their calves without attacking them with impetuous ferocity.

'When any one happens to be wounded, or grown weak and feeble through age or sickness, the rest of the herd set upon it, and gore it to death.' p. 149.

The sheep most valued is the Cheviot and the heath breed. The best judges differ on the subject; but could the Cheviot be improved in the fore quarters, it would, we think, be the superior kind: at the same time, we suspect that the heath breed is the hardier. We are sorry that we cannot enlarge on this subject so much as it deserves, but must refer to the work, where much valuable information occurs. We forgot to remark that the value of the improved long-woolled breed depends on its fattening quickly at a very early age.

The breeds of horses are also excellent: the best draught horses are brought from Clydesdale: they are strong, hardy, and remarkably true pullers. Our author endeavours to demonstrate that the employment of oxen in draught is neither æconomic nor politically prudent. Of the wages we need give no account. The average price of corn at Berwick, in 1792, was five shillings per bushel; and that of butchers' meat four pence and five pence per pound; but in 1798, it was six pence and seven pence.

The roads are usually in good order; but there are no canals. The fairs and markets are not interesting to the general reader; and of the manufactures we need only add, that the woollen has been lately introduced at Alnwick, Mitford, and Acklington. A cotton-mill has also been erected in this county with apparent success.

The obstacles to improvements are, letting no leases, or short ones, and taking tithes in *kind*. The miscellaneous observations are not very interesting.

We must now conclude our account, with an apology for

the length of the article; although there is more reason to regret that many interesting particulars have necessarily been omitted. We find many curious and many important remarks, for the fidelity of which the authors are answerable. We mean not to impeach it.—The plates of the different breeds of sheep, and of the different machines, add greatly to the value of the Survey.

ART. V.—*Lectures on the Gospel of St. Matthew, &c.* By the Right Rev. Beilby Porteus, D.D. Bishop of London. (*Continued from p. 87 of our present Volume.*)

THE second volume commences with the history of Herod and Herodias, and the death of John the Baptist. The subject of the fifteenth lecture is the transfiguration, which is treated in the same manner as in an essay given by his lordship to the public about twelve years ago. The three ensuing lectures are on parables and moral instruction, on which our limits do not permit us to dilate; and we hasten to the nineteenth, appropriated to our Saviour's prediction of the siege and destruction of Jerusalem. This is allowed by all commentators to have been predicted in the famous prophecy in the twenty-fourth chapter of St. Matthew; but, from the highly figurative language there employed, many have supposed that it could not refer to the abolition of the Jewish state, but to the final destruction of the world. The circumstances attending the siege of that unhappy city are presented to the reader in his lordship's best manner; they are compared, with the utmost judgement and propriety, with the prophecy itself; and it is shown, most perspicuously, that the peculiar protection of the Christians, and the desolation of the Jews, were both foretold by our Saviour, whose language on this occasion corresponds with that of the ancient prophets. The common English version of this passage has led many into the error of referring this sublime description to the supposed end of the world; but his lordship justly observes, that 'by the end of the world is to be understood, not the final consummation of all things here below, but the end of that age, the end of the Jewish state and polity, the subversion of their city, temple, and government.' In a note, it is pointed out that 'the word *αἰών*—here translated *the world*—frequently means nothing more than *an age*, a certain definite period of time.' But surely his lordship might have confirmed this opinion with greater strength of argument; and, instead of the conditional term 'frequently,' which implies that the other acceptance of the word is occasionally adopted, might have informed his readers that the primary signification of *αἰών* is *an*

age, and that in this sense it is used, *without any exception whatever*, throughout the whole of the Scriptures.

A difficulty is often started on another part of the prophecy. Since our Saviour clearly determines that the destruction would take place in the lives of the generation which then heard him, how could he affirm (it has been inquired) that the day or hour of its arrival was not known to him, or to any man, or angel—but to God alone? 'This,' says the lecturer, 'our Saviour speaks in his human nature, and in his prophetic capacity. This point was not made known to him by the Spirit, nor was he commissioned to reveal it.' Here, however, it would have been but just that the distinction between the divine and human nature of our Saviour should have been in some measure explained—a point, indeed, which is not sufficiently noticed in these lectures. In the twentieth lecture, the remarks on the fate of Jerusalem are considered; nor are the fire-balls, on the attempt of Julian to rebuild it, omitted. There is so much excellence in these two lectures, that we observed with pain their disfigurement by the introduction of this unnecessary miracle.

The four next lectures are chiefly occupied with the treachery of Judas, the trial, execution, burial, and resurrection, of our Saviour—on all which topics the remarks are highly and nearly equally pertinent, though in pathetic narration we think his lordship excels. The reproof of our Saviour to Peter for drawing his sword is not explained in the happiest manner, when it is said to intimate to the disciples 'that it was perfectly needless for them to draw their swords on those miscreants, since they would all perish at the siege or capture of Jerusalem by the sword of the Romans.' Our Saviour most assuredly would not have applied the term *miscreants* to the body of men who came to seize him—a term, in our own language, of virulent abuse; while the correction of an improper disposition in the apostle, discovered in his attempt to resist the civil power, and not the contemplation of the fate of those for whom he even prayed in his last moments, was assuredly the source of his reproof.

The concluding lecture is on the mysteries of Christianity, in which we in vain look for that decisive language and accumulation of proof which in such a subject is particularly desirable. We are said to have the authority of the apostles for worshipping Christ, because, when the five hundred saw him, we are told they worshiped him—a decision advanced by his lordship without hinting in the remotest degree at the meaning of the word *worship* in the original, which implies nothing more than the reverence due from an inferior to a superior. When it is paid to God, it is divine worship; and the question is, Whether the apostles at that moment were acquainted with the divine na-

ture of Christ?—a point which cannot be determined from other circumstances. The baptismal form is said to be 'one principal ground of a very distinguished doctrine of the Gospel, and of the church of England—the doctrine of the Trinity.' In this, surely justice is not done either to the doctrine or to the church; for this form is used by those who disbelieve the doctrine of the Trinity; and the Arian is baptised into the belief of the Son, though not into the belief of the equality of the Son with the Father, because that equality is not necessarily implied in the form itself. Hence the faith of a mind not very strong may be easily sapped by the weakness of the foundation on which, by his lordship's mode of argument, it is made to depend.

'As the unity of the Supreme Being is every where taught in the same scriptures, and is a fundamental article of our religion, we are naturally led to conclude with our church in its first article, "that there is but one living and true God, of infinite power and wisdom, the maker and preserver of all things, visible and invisible; and that, in the unity of this Godhead, there are three persons, of one substance, power, and eternity, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost." Vol. ii. p. 336.

Now, as the Unity is expressly contended to be every-where inculcated, the worthy lecturer should have selected a few texts in which the equality of the Son and the Holy Spirit to the Father is expressly asserted; and this we more particularly expected, because, in the introductory lecture, the Jews were said 'to have been separated from the rest of the world, to preserve the knowledge and worship of the Supreme Being, and the great fundamental doctrine of the Unity.'

We do not by any means approve of the cloaking, as it were, of this belief in abstruse terms, and presenting it as 'a very mysterious doctrine.' In one sense of the word, the birth of every person is mysterious; for we are not able to discover the process of nature in the formation of a child in the womb. The unity of God, the creation of the world, and myriads of daily facts, are all equally mysterious;—but the doctrine of the Trinity, which is so clearly explained in the Athanasian creed, cannot with propriety be called mysterious; and the belief of it rests entirely upon the words of Scripture. Hence there is no need of the parade of a supposed submission of the understanding, as if it were something difficult to be attained. To believe the resurrection from the dead, requires only that we should believe Christ's resurrection;—to believe the Trinity, requires only that the doctrine be taught by those who were acquainted with, and divinely commissioned to teach, it. In both cases, the exercise of our reason is to be resorted to with freedom and impartiality, and its duty is to submit to the voice of truth. We

are informed, indeed, of mysteries which even angels once desired to look into: but what were mysteries to them, cease to be so to us, since every object of faith necessary to salvation is clearly revealed in the holy scriptures. By covering also with the veil of mystery an important doctrine, there is a danger that the assent to it will in time become merely nominal, and that those whose attention has never been called to its proofs will scarcely persevere with confidence in the faith which was once strongly urged on their fathers.

However we may think that his lordship was not sufficiently anxious to establish the important doctrine of the Trinity in the minds of his hearers, and to confirm it by a variety of proofs with which, considering the nature of his audience, there is much reason to believe they were but little acquainted, we cannot too highly commend the just distinction which he draws between the faith and life of a Christian. 'We may believe,' he says, 'all the great essential doctrines of the Gospel: this alone will not ensure our salvation, unless to our faith we add obedience to all the laws of Christ.' On this point he stamps a due degree of importance; and the course of lectures is concluded with a dignified recapitulation of the whole, and an affectionate address to the audience, founded on a full view of the subject, and the state of the public times at their termination. His view of the subject deserves to be presented to our readers.

'In the history of our Lord, as given by St. Matthew,' (his lordship observes) 'of which I have detailed the most essential parts, such a scene has been presented to your observation, as cannot but have excited sensations of a very serious and a very awful nature in your minds. You cannot but have seen that the divine Author of our religion is, beyond comparison, the most extraordinary and most important personage, that ever appeared on this habitable globe. His birth, his life, his doctrines, his precepts, his miracles, his sufferings, his death, his resurrection, his ascension, are all without a parallel in the history of mankind. He called himself the Son of God, the Messiah predicted in the prophets, the great Redeemer and Deliverer of mankind, promised in the sacred writings, through successive ages, almost from the foundation of the world. He supported these great characters with uniformity, with consistence, and with dignity, throughout the whole course of his ministry. The work he undertook was the greatest and most astonishing that can be conceived, and such as before never entered into the imagination of man. It was nothing less than the conversion of a whole world from the grossest ignorance, the most abandoned wickedness, and the most sottish idolatry, to the knowledge of the true God, to a pure and holy religion, and to faith in him, who was *the way, the truth, and the life*. He proved himself to have a commission from heaven, for those great purposes, by such demonstrations of divine wisdom, power, and goodness, as it is impossible for any fair and ingenuous, and unprejudiced mind, to resist. Of all this you have seen abun-

dant instances in the course of these lectures: and when all these circumstances are collected into one point of view, they present such a body of evidence, as must overpower by its weight all the trivial difficulties and objections that the wit of man can raise against the divine authority of the Gospel.

Consider in the first place, the transcendent excellence of our Lord's character, so infinitely beyond that of every other moral teacher; the gentleness, the calmness, the composure, the dignity, the integrity, the spotless sanctity of his manners, so utterly inconsistent with every idea of enthusiasm or imposture; the compassion, the kindness, the tenderness he expressed for the whole human race, even for the worst of sinners, and the bitterest of his enemies; the perfect command he had over his own passions; the temper he preserved under the severest provocations; the patience, the meekness with which he endured the cruellest insults, and the grossest indignities; the fortitude he displayed under the most excruciating torments; the sublimity and importance of his doctrines; the consummate wisdom and purity of his moral precepts, far exceeding the natural powers of a man born in the humblest situation, and in a remote and obscure corner of the world, without learning, education, languages, or books. Consider further the minute description of all the most material circumstances of his birth, life, sufferings, death, and resurrection, given by the ancient prophets many hundred years before he was born, and exactly fulfilled in him, and him only; the many astonishing miracles wrought by him in the open face of day, before thousands of spectators, the reality of which is proved by multitudes of the most unexceptionable witnesses, who sealed their testimony with their blood, and was even acknowledged by the earliest and most inveterate enemies of the Gospel. Above all, consider those two most remarkable occurrences in the history of our Lord, which have been particularly enlarged upon in these lectures, and are alone sufficient to establish the divinity of his person and of his religion; I mean his wonderful prediction of the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans, with every minute circumstance attending it; and that astonishing and well authenticated miracle of his resurrection from the grave, which was in the last lecture set before you: and when you lay all these things together, and weigh them deliberately and impartially, your minds must be formed in a very peculiar manner indeed, if they are not most thoroughly impressed with faith in the Son of God, and the Gospel which he taught.' Vol. ii. p. 350.

From this and the other extracts we have made from this valuable work, our readers will appreciate its general character. The right-reverend writer's aim is elegance, perspicuity of composition, and purity of diction; his style is chaste and correct; his sentiments are never lofty nor sublime, never mean nor depressed. Acquainted more with the chaste models of the classics than the bulky volumes of the fathers, their commentators, or the later polemic writers and annotators on the Scriptures, he rather skims the surface than enters deeply into any theologic argument. There is ample matter, however, to excite curiosity,

which was the great point to be obtained before such an audience; and we sincerely trust that some means will yet be adopted by which this curiosity may be gratified in future. If these volumes afford no proofs of deep polemic discussion, the right-reverend author, both for the conception and execution of his plan, is still highly entitled to the gratitude of the public.

ART. VI.—*Rural Sports.* By the Rev. Wm. B. Daniel. Vol. I.
4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. 1801.

AMONG the various species of affectation which distinguish this age of pretended sensibility and refinement, no one has been carried to so great a height as an over-acted regard for humanity. The characteristic of our ancestors was hardihood—not unfrequently, indeed, ferocity; the distinction of the present day is effeminacy, the offspring of voluptuousness. It is the common error of superficial minds to run into one extreme in avoiding another; and, therefore, when the light of learning and cultivation induced men of sense to cry down the wanton cruelties of bull-baiting and cock-fighting, practised by our forefathers in times of barbarism, it became the employment of sentimental poetasters to exclaim against the innocent diversions of the field. Steele and Addison, in their periodic papers, held up, with great justice, the fox-hunter to ridicule; not because he killed his prey, but because he neglected the cultivation of his mind by following nothing else. Succeeding writers must, forsooth, *over-run the scent*, and equally abuse the sport and the sportsman with the same dash of their pen. They cry out against the barbarity of pursuing the natural inhabitants of the forest, without considering that they are part of the food given by heaven to man, and which he has no other means of appropriating; or reflecting, that were their increase not checked, they would consume the whole of his labours—the grass and grain of his fields. Country gentlemen, in reading these refined speculations, have consequently laughed at them, and, unacquainted with the more vicious recreations of a town life, have followed the chase, and preserved to themselves both amusement and health. The most whimsical circumstance of all is, that when the squire sends the produce of his labours as a present to the metropolis, these tender-hearted beaux and belles are wonderfully expert at carving them, as a necessary accomplishment; and can swallow the breast of a pheasant, or the thigh of a woodcock, with as much *gusto*, and as little remorse, as the keenest fox-hunter in the united kingdom.

The volume before us, together with a second in the press, is intended by Mr. Daniel as a cabinet for the rural sportsman.

He candidly terms it a compilation, interspersed with remarks of his own; and begins it with a generous admiration of man's domestic friend—The 'Dog.'

'So much has been said of the services of this animal in all ages, and of the predominancy of its friendship towards man, that to compile its history would be to mark the progress of civilization, and to follow the gradual advancement of that order, which placed man at the head of the brute creation. Man deprived of this faithful ally, would unsuccessfully resist the foes that on all sides surround him, seeking every opportunity to destroy his labour, attack his person, and encroach upon his property. His own vigilance cannot secure him against the rapacity of the one, nor his utmost exertions overcome the speed of the other. Some animal was essential to insure his safety, and where, amidst the various classes of them, could one be selected so well adapted for this purpose? Where has zeal, fidelity, boldness, and obedience, been so happily united as in the dog? More tractable than man, and more pliant than any other animal, the dog is not only speedily instructed, but even conforms himself to the movements and habits of those who govern him. Savage must that nature be, which can ill treat a creature, who has renounced his liberty to associate with man, to whose service his whole life is devoted, who, sensible of every kindness, is grateful for the smallest favour, whilst the harshest usage cannot make him unfaithful; he licks the hand that has just been lifted to strike him, and at last disarms resentment by submissive perseverance. The dog by night guards, and by day amuses his master, who, from his desire of pleasing, runs with cheerfulness and alacrity to his master's foot, where he lays down his courage, his strength, and his talents; and who is, from pure sentiments of affection, the only companion who will not forsake him in adversity.

'To conceive the importance of this species in the order of nature, let us suppose that it never existed. Without the aid of the dog, how could man have conquered, tamed, and reduced the other animals into slavery? For his own security it was necessary to form a party among the animals themselves, to conciliate by care and caresses those, which were capable of fidelity and obedience, that he might oppose them to noxious and savage beasts; hence the training of the dog seems to have engaged the early attention of man, and the result of this act was, the conquest and peaceable possession of the earth.

'To most animals, nature has been more liberal than to man, in agility, swiftness, and strength, and has armed and fortified them better. Their senses, and particularly that of smelling, are more perfect; to have therefore brought over to our interest a bold and tractable race, whose acuteness of scent is one of their peculiar properties, was to acquire a new faculty, and this living improvement, presented by the hand of nature to our defective sense of smelling, furnishes us with permanent resources for supreme dominion; the dog, ever faithful to man, will maintain a portion of this empire, will always preserve a degree of superiority above the other animals. He reigns at the head of a flock, and is better heard than the voice of

the shepherd; safety and discipline are the fruits of the dog's vigilance and activity.' P. 1.

After some general remarks on the species at large, and a few details of the kinds not used in sporting, our author begins with the fox-hound; and is very copious in his description of that sagacious animal, and of his spirit in the chase in which he is employed.

'Of the fox-hound's undaunted spirit the following is a decisive proof. In drawing a strong cover a young bitch gave tongue very freely, whilst none of the other hounds challenged; the whipper-in rated to no purpose, the huntsman insisted she was wrong, and the whip was applied with great severity, in doing this the lash accidentally struck one of her eyes out of the socket; notwithstanding this painful situation, the bitch again took the scent and proved herself right, for a fox had stole away, and she broke cover after him unheeded and alone; however after much delay and cold hunting the pack did hit off the chase; at some distance a farmer informed the sportsmen, that they were far behind the fox, for that a single hound, very bloody about the head, had passed a field off from him, and was running breast high, and that there was little chance of their getting up to him. The pack from her coming to a check, did at length get up, and after some cold hunting the bitch again hit off the scent, and the fox was killed after a long and severe run, and the eye of the bitch, which had hung pendent during the chase, was taken off by a pair of scissars after the fox was dead.

'The circumstance which happened in the duke of Northumberland's pack, proves the fox-hound's eagerness after his game. In 1796 the hounds ran a fox into a very large furze cover, near Alnwick, called Bunker's Hill, where he was lost in an earth which no one knew of. Upon the hounds coming to the kennel, two couple and a half of the best hounds were missing, and not returning that night, it was thought they had found a fox and had gone off by themselves with him. Several men were sent in search of them to all the earths and crags for twenty miles round, but no tidings could be gained. The cover where the fox was lost was then searched, and the earth discovered, and in digging about two yards deep, one hound was found; several yards further, three more, fast together in the ground, and two yards deeper the fifth hound was dug up. They were all dead.' P. 152.

In the course of the chapter on fox-hounds, instructions are given for the site and building of a kennel, as well as a long treatise on canine maladies and medicines. We cannot afford room to follow our author through his different descriptions; and must therefore content ourselves with barely noticing that he descants progressively on the harrier, the beagle, the terrier, the grey-hound, the fox, the stag, the hare, the rabbit, the marten, the badger, and the otter; and adds some observations, well worthy the sportsman's notice, on the principles and policy of the game-laws.

' The game-laws were introduced amongst us at an era when property was not governed, either in the use or in the possession, by those enlightened maxims of justice which at present secure it. The aristocratic orders of that period consulted their own amusement and pleasure, without any very scrupulous regard to the rights, or very provident care for the comforts of the least opulent, but not least valuable classes of the community. They were strong, and they were not willing to weaken the foundation of their power, by a relaxation of their privileges. Their pride made them averse from sharing with the commonalty an amusement, which, by a small stretch of power, they might appropriate to themselves. The exercise of hunting, and the pursuits of the various sorts of game, partaking somewhat of that spirit of enterprize in which they delighted, were recreations of all others congenial to their taste; it is not therefore wonderful that they should contrive to debar the lower orders from their participation.

' It is admitted by sir W. Blackstone, treating on this subject, that "*by the law of nature, every man, from the prince to the peasant, has an equal right of pursuing and taking to his own use, all such creatures as are fere nature.*" *Bl. Com. vol. 2. p. 411.* This truth is granted as incontestable. "But," he adds, "it follows from the very end and constitution of society, that this natural right, as well as many others belonging to man as an individual, may be restrained by positive laws, enacted for reasons of state, or for the supposed benefit of the community." When the public welfare in any instance obviously demands that the natural right of an individual should be controlled in its exercise by regulations established by law, the justice of such regulations is indisputable; but surely nothing but reasons of manifest good policy, and the actual benefit of the state, can justify such restrictions. If they may be abridged or withheld, as the learned writer here affirms they may, for reasons of state, and the supposed benefit of the community, we hold them by a tenure of very uncertain duration. Nothing can be more vague than the terms on which we must submit, if not to their absolute surrender, at least to an indefinite encroachment upon them,' p. 205.

Mr. Daniel, with much spirit and judgement, proceeds to differ from the learned commentator in many of his opinions. We should be disposed, with him, to lament the vague terms on which we must submit to an indefinite encroachment on the game-laws, had we not cause for more serious sorrow. What greater bulwarks of public security have not lately been *withheld or abridged, for reasons of state, and the supposed benefit of the community?* With us the minor evil is swallowed up in the greater.

A number of the compiler's anecdotes would have deserved reprehension, had he written for any other class of readers: but many a Nimrod not only would eat a deviled fox-head, but has enthusiasm enough to swallow the animal alive. The writer indeed discovers no small quantity of reading, but often great want of judgement in selection; in consequence of which,

the sportsman himself, in every doubtful point upon which he consults the volume, will be often more perplexed than if he had never seen it. As a proof of this, we need refer to nothing farther than the confused and multifarious account here offered of canine madness, both as to the disease itself and the remedies recommended. In reality, upon the very voluminous subject of canine diseases in general, as well as the natural history of the different animals described, there is a great deal too much of common-place matter, and a repetition of many unauthenticated and ill-founded anecdotes.

The second volume will treat of fowling and fishing. The type and paper are good; and the plates are engraven with great beauty of workmanship.

ART. VII.—*Musgrave's Memoirs of the different Rebellions in Ireland, from the Arrival of the English, &c.*

VIII.—*The Reply of the Right Rev. Doctor Caulfield, Roman-Catholic Bishop, and of the Roman-Catholic Clergy of Wexford, to the Misrepresentations of Sir Richard Musgrave, Bart. With a Preface and Appendix. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Keating and Co. 1801.*

IX.—*Part of a Letter to a noble Earl; containing a very short Comment on the Doctrines and Facts of Sir Richard Musgrave's Quarto; and vindictory of the Yeomanry and Catholics of the City of Cork. By Thomas Townshend, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Booker. 1801.*

X.—*Observations on the Reply of the Right Reverend Doctor Caulfield, Roman-Catholic Bishop, and of the Roman-Catholic Clergy of Wexford, to the Misrepresentations of Sir Richard Musgrave, Bart. and on other Writers who have animadverted on the "Memoirs of the Irish Rebellions." By Sir Richard Musgrave, Bart. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1802.*

(Concluded from p. 50 of the present Volume.)

WE resume our account of the Irish rebellion, and the controversy which sir Richard Musgrave's Memoirs have excited. His own evidence and arguments we have already noticed and commented upon; and shall proceed without farther introduction to those of his antagonists, commencing, as first in the order of time, with *The Reply of Dr. Caulfield*.

‘ If one-tenth part of what is asserted by sir Richard Musgrave were founded in fact, the parties would not at this day be alive to refute his calumnies. Whoever has witnessed the spirit of party and the ardor for prosecutions, which prevail in certain places, will readily assent to this assertion. Who, for example, in the least de-

gree acquainted with the temper of the county of Wexford; can believe, that doctor Caulfield would remain to this day unarraigned and unindicted, if there were any shadow of proof to support the atrocious charge,—of having given his benediction to an armed body of insurgents?

‘ Perhaps it will be said, that the lenity of government was exerted to discourage any such investigation. Assertions of this nature have been made; but could the lenity of government prevent a magistrate from receiving the charge, or a witness from advancing it? Could government infuse its supposed forbearance into the angry minds of those country gentlemen, who usually constitute grand juries? Would there have been no triumph in bringing a popish prelate to the bar? Let those reply who are conversant with the present state of Ireland, those in particular, who have examined the dispositions prevalent in the lately disturbed districts. Let those reply who witness the anxious assiduity to calumniate the Roman-catholic body, to exaggerate the faults committed by men of that description, and to suppress the delinquencies of every other order; to sink the merits of the heads of the clergy and laity, of the nobility, gentry, the professional and mercantile bodies, and to turn to the rabble exclusively for a collective character. There is no stage in which the insurrectionary spirit was not opposed by Roman-catholics; in its first appearance, by writing and exhortation; by the sword, in the daring maturity of its perfection; those who are earnest in throwing these services into oblivion, in order to prepare a fantastic accusation against the catholics, of irreconcilable hostility to their fellow-subjects—those persons, indeed, are to be soothed to forgiveness by the meek and pacific influence of government !!!

‘ Let it be recollected that, in an extent of nearly fifty miles from Bray to Wexford, almost every Roman-catholic place of worship was laid in ashes; that many of the clergy of that persuasion were menaced, and many more sustained personal outrages; is it then credible, that any individual of that obnoxious order, upon whom a criminal accusation could be fixed with probability, would be suffered to continue within these limits at large and unmolested?’
P. i,

‘ The Memoir is so extravagant and contradictory, that it is surprising how any man in his senses could think of imposing such inconsistencies on the public. Here, rev. John Sutton, rev. William Synnott, and doctor Caulfield, are represented as endeavouring to save two protestant gentlemen of Enniscorthy, which they happily effected; though sir Richard had already established the principle, that it must be their duty and inclination to destroy and extirpate all heretics.—A most outrageous fiction. Here, rev. Edward Murphy saves Mr. Grandy, a protestant, and at the same time preaches to the rebels to destroy all heretics, *i. e.* protestants, many of whom he had then and frequently present in the chapel, not to be destroyed, but to be saved, as well as their property, as far as Mr. Murphy could prevail; and the most respectable protestants of that

district bear honourable and grateful testimony under their hands to his zealous exertions in their favour.

‘ But “ the popish priests of the county of Wexford had an unbounded influence over their flocks ; there were numbers of them constantly in the town, besides those who resided there.” Yes, some who were convenient to it fled into the town to avoid being dragged to the camps or forced at the point of the pike, as they were often threatened by the rebels : whilst others lurked in the rocks on the coast, and others abandoned their dwellings and slept (if they could sleep) in ditches, hedges, or brakes of furze, to avoid the shame, the disgust, and the horror of the camps, and the impious insults of the parties who were frequently sent in search of them. Yet “ those priests have brought eternal shame and dishonour on themselves, by not exerting that unbounded influence (which they had not) over their sanguinary flocks, and suffering such atrocities to be committed by them.” When the sheep become wolves, will this author tell what is the influence or power of the shepherd ? Happy for those popish priests of the county of Wexford, that not one of them who had a flock, not one parish priest was implicated, or had any concern in fomenting, encouraging, or aiding the rebellion : nay, certain it is, that they abhorred, detested, and shuddered at it, as the most wicked, scandalous, and abominable event or occurrence they had witnessed : I have good cause to know and to declare to the world, that if the popish or parish priests of the county of Wexford had possessed that degree of authority or influence attributed to them in this manner, there would have been no rebellion in that county : or if they retained or obtained such influence after the rebellion broke out, their respective flocks would have laid down their arms and returned to their respective homes, and to their allegiance to their king and government : nor am I afraid that this truth will be impeached or weakened by sir Richard’s unfounded assertion, sophistry, or illogical inferences ; such as, “ The popish priests had unbounded influence over their flocks, by whom they were not only revered as men, but adored as Gods. The savage pikemen never met them in the streets, without bowing low to them with their hats off, and continued so while they were in their sight : and they never met doctor Caulfield the popish bishop, without falling on their knees and receiving his benediction.”

‘ But if such unwarrantable assertions serve not the cause of truth, the author of them was well aware they would serve his main object—the cause of prejudice and irreconcilable enmity. God bless him ! As I am said to have been so profuse of my benedictions to pikemen, why not grant him one ? When I endeavoured to prevail on a party of rebels, who were plundering the house of my next door neighbour, Mr. Matt. Kavanagh, to desist and come away, they told me in a most insulting and menacing tone, that they had information against my house, they rushed into it and searched for what they called Orangemen, bad men, &c. In vain did rev. Mr. Corrin, who was then in my house, endeavour to remonstrate and exhort them, they treated him with equal insolence. Pray is this kneeling to crave or receive doctor Caulfield’s benediction ? was this revering their bishop

and parish priest as men, or adoring them as Gods? Not one of them had even the civility to bow or take off his hat. Shame then on the mischievous effrontery, that dared to invent and publish such malicious falsehoods.

‘Many persons contrary to their inclination and conscience, yet for self-preservation, were obliged to enter the ranks of the rebels, and to march with them: these, it may be easily supposed, had not divested themselves of all respect for the character and persons of their clergy. But if they make any shew of respect or deference, they are put down idolaters, and the priest or bishop the idol. But still “the popish priests had unbounded influence.” The few renegade, abandoned, reprobate priests, who perverted their ministry and joined or headed the rebellion, might have had influence over the rebels: but whoever says or swears “that the parish priests or the other curates or coadjutors had such influence or could save whom they liked by a word’s speaking or a turn of their finger,” I am bold to say and solemnly to declare, as I do, in the face of heaven and earth, that they say or swear a well known untruth or falsehood.’
P. 3.

In answer to the insinuation of sir Richard, and the direct charge of an anonymous writer on the same side, that the doctor stepped forward to protect and save lord Kingsborough from selfish motives, he gives this account of the transaction.

‘Having received a most pressing message from lord Kingsborough and captain Keugh, early on the morning of Thursday the 21st of June, 1798, I hastened to them, to the house of Robert Meyler, where lord Kingsborough was still a prisoner. On my arrival, captain Keugh told me, he had that morning given up the government of the town to lord Kingsborough, and the mayoralty to doctor Jacob; they both told me the rebels were beaten and routed every where, and were pouring into the town by thousands, from all quarters; that if they continued any time in the town, they would proceed to murder all the prisoners, as they had declared the day before; and that if the troops should overtake them in town, they would make a general slaughter of them, and perhaps indiscriminately, of the inhabitants, and reduce the town to ashes; that the only means of preventing these shocking disasters, was to get the rebels out of town; that a strong representation of their own danger and of lord Kingsborough’s negotiations with the military commanders and government, would have more weight with the rebels than any exhortations or consideration of duty. They then called on and conjured me to exert myself, and to call the rest of the clergy to help me to prevail on the rebels, as they came in, to leave the town, for their own and the general safety.

‘In this state of things, I did not skulk or fly, (as perhaps I might) I immediately sent to the clergy; they came to assist me, and not only they, but many or most of the R. catholic inhabitants of Wexford, loyal men, (though some to save themselves had been obliged to appear as rebels), nay, even real professed rebels aided us. Mr. Perry, the notable captain Dixon, &c. helped us; we did our

utmost from nine or ten in the morning to the going down of the sun, and under God, we succeeded in prevailing on the rebels to leave the town; and thereby prevented all the mischief and misfortunes which might and probably would attend and follow from their remaining in it. There was no prisoner put to death, no protestant murdered, no houses burnt, (though several of the rebels threatened, and some of them attempted to set fire to the town) no disaster took place, all was saved, prisoners, protestants, inhabitants, and the town were safe.

‘That lord Kingsborough himself was convinced of the truth of what I here state, I can have no doubt; because he never paid me the least compliment, nor have I heard that he ever expressed to any one else any grateful sense of my endeavours to save him. During his confinement, at his own desire, I paid him every attention in my power, without being able to effect any thing to alleviate the painfulness of his situation, which was really a critical and most dangerous one. When the occasion, the only one, and the circumstances occurred in which I thought I could act with some effect, I set out with all the energy of my mind and body, regardless of my own life (which was repeatedly in imminent danger) or of any other consideration than that before me, the common safety. I traversed many thousand rebels on that day, exhorting, beseeching, sometimes standing in a wood of pikes, or striving to walk through them, and sometimes on my knees, conjuring them to depart; those who came in latest were the most obstinate, sanguinary, and infuriate, on whom we could hardly make any impression; so that from constant and vehement speaking, I got quite hoarse, and from unremitted exertion I became so exhausted, so languid, and faint, that I despaired of effecting my purpose, and would have given it up, were it not that the people of the town, and many rebels of more humanity and reason still pressed me to continue. I did so, until the square, the streets, the town was cleared of rebels, except that a few stragglers might have lurked in private houses. Such was my conduct on that memorable and fortunate day.

‘I know not how sir Richard would have acted were he in my place and circumstances; but I am persuaded were he to witness what I on that occasion went through, he would think me an object of pity, rather than of the unremitted, insidious attacks which he has repeatedly made on my character.

‘The transaction to which I here refer, was public and notorious, I call upon any person who can, to controvert the truth of my statement. Before I close this narrative, I must add, that the representations made so successfully by the clergy upon this occasion would have produced little effect whilst the rebels entertained sanguine hopes to success, much less whilst they were elated and rendered confident by an appearance of victory. When we addressed them, they were routed, and their force broken by disasters, applying ourselves to them at that critical moment, and holding out to them a prospect of pardon, which was the only hope they could indulge in such circumstances, we were the instruments under God of softening the unruly multitude into forbearance.

‘It is obvious that lord Kingsborough might have been spared or saved, for reasons or circumstances that did not operate for others, or for any other individual. He was a nobleman of interest and consequence, an important hostage, a military man treating with military commanders for favourable terms for the rebels; these circumstances and considerations did not attend or attach to other individuals, and which must have weight with even a rebel in his serious and cool senses, particularly in so perilous a situation. Hence I think it fair to say, that his lordship might have been spared, though others had suffered.’ P. 15.

But we cannot dwell longer upon this defence. Suffice it to observe, that the doctor denies, in the most peremptory manner, every allegation urged against him, with perpetual repetitions of the most solemn appeals to heaven for the truth of his statements—a sort of proof we would readily have dispensed with; and brings forward in the appendix to his pamphlet a great body of affidavits and other testimonials, equally from papists and protestants, to justify both himself and his colleagues, and disprove by collateral evidence the facts alleged by his opponent. Many of these appear to be incontrovertible;—they give, if admitted, a high opinion of the humanity and public spirit of the catholic clergy of Wexford; and establish, that, so far from wishing to make converts, in many instances they actually refused to admit into the Roman communion protestants who fled to them for this purpose; observing that the time of civil strife was not the proper period for examining their own hearts—that they were actuated by motives of fear alone—and exhorting them to hope that the rebellion would soon be over, and its leaders brought to condign punishment; engaging, at the same time, to protect them with all the power they possessed. The affidavits, in proof of this last assertion, are, in general, signed by the very protestants who fled to them for the purpose of changing their religion. We ought not, however, to omit the following, because it gives the joint testimony of the Wexford clergy themselves in the face of the whole world.

‘*Wexford, May 12, 1801.*

‘At a meeting of the Roman-catholic clergymen residing in the convent of Wexford, a book entitled, “A History of the Rebellions, &c.” published in the name of, and said to be written by sir Richard Musgrave, bart. being taken into consideration, the following declarations were unanimously adopted.

‘We most solemnly declare in the face of heaven and in the awful presence of God, that we disclaim and disavow the horrid principles in said book attributed to us, as Roman-catholics: principles which, though often disavowed with horror and detestation, we are sorry to find unrelenting bigotry and prejudice still labour to attach to us: and we can consider the unfounded and malicious assertions with which said publication is replete, as tending only to sever the bonds

of society, to irritate one part of the community against the other, and to perpetuate those deplorable animosities that would disgrace even savages, and have too long distracted this country.

‘ We most solemnly declare, that far from promoting or conniving at the horrid and atrocious murder of protestants in the late detestable rebellion, we have on the contrary used every effort in our power (often at the risk of our own lives amidst a drunken and infuriated rabble) to save both their persons and property—that we flew to their assistance when called on—that we furnished them with every succour, and every means of safety our limited abilities enabled us to do, during that melancholy period.

‘ We most solemnly declare, that it is a vile and cruel calumny to assert that we had any authority over the rebels, except what prayers, supplications, and entreaties could obtain; and which, we are sorry to say, were generally ineffectual.

‘ We most solemnly declare, that it is a false and atrocious calumny to assert, that we were previously apprised of the intended murders on the bridge of Wexford the 20th of June 1798, and that we dreaded something extremely bloody on that particular day; we had less apprehensions of a massacre on that day, than on any of the preceding; because we had that day learnt that a court-martial was appointed by the rebels for trying two individuals, Messrs. Turner and Gainfort, who were peculiarly obnoxious to them: for those two alone we had apprehensions: for those two we addressed our prayers and supplications; but, were turned out of the court-martial-room with insult and contumely.

‘ We most solemnly declare, that we hold and always held in abhorrence the conduct of the few misguided clergymen who joined the rebels: to impute their faults to us, is, we conceive, injustice and bigotry in the extreme.

‘ Father Broe most solemnly declares, that he never called on Elizabeth Edwards, or any other protestant, for money for baptizing her or them. It is, indeed, customary for one or other of us to make a charitable collection once every year among our protestant and catholic neighbours; to pervert such a collection into baptizing fees, and to recruit an affidavit to prove it, is, alas! a melancholy proof of the malignity of this compiler of calumnies.

‘ We most sincerely and solemnly declare, that as Christians, as ministers of the living God, as preachers of the Gospel of peace and good-will, we behold with grief and abhorrence the violation of that Christian charity that should unite all mankind in bonds of love, but more especially the worshippers of the true and living God; and we most earnestly entreat our protestant brethren not to credit the false and malicious assertions of this shameless writer, without a full, candid, and impartial examination of our conduct, or before we can in a more ample manner wipe off the aspersions of this calumniator.

*Wexford,
July 20, 1801.*

‘ JOHN BROE.
PATRICK LAMBERT.
MATHIAS COLFER.
RICHARD SYNNOTT.
PATRICK PETTIT.
THOMAS SCALLAN.’ P. 30.

But it is time that we attend to the objections of Mr. Townshend.—Sir Richard, in another part of his publication, thus opens his account of the ‘Conspiracy in the city of Cork.

‘The conspiracy was infinitely more terriffick in the city of Cork than in Dublin, because the protestants of the established church, whose destruction was meditated, were much fewer in proportion to the Roman catholicks; and the conspirators were better organized and armed, as the vigilance and the exertions of the executive power were not so active and vigorous as in the metropolis, the seat of government.

‘It was divided into three divisions, the north, the centre, and the south; and each of them was subdivided into sections. It was discovered, that there were one hundred and thirty of the latter, from North-gate bridge, through Black-pool, and that portion of the city, and that each consisted of a serjeant and twelve men. They were all regimented, and had a regular gradation of officers from a colonel down to a corporal.

‘An immense quantity of pikes was fabricated in Cork. Measures were concerted for taking the magazine; and so sure were the conspirators of succeeding, that poles were prepared, exactly fitted to the socket of a bayonet, that they might mount them the instant those weapons, (of which there was a great number in the magazine), fell into their hands.

‘There was great disaffection among the popish yeomen, particularly in the Cork Legion. Donovan and Drinane continued members of it till they were arrested; and Sweeny, the chief leader of the conspiracy in Cork, who has been transported to Botany Bay, was seized and committed a short time after he had been expelled from the corps, for disobedience of orders, in which he manifested notorious disaffection. Some of them owned to persons who became approvers, that they entered into it merely to obtain arms and a knowledge of military discipline. Roger O'Connor, confined in gaol, was the chief director of the union in Cork; and he paid the bills at the houses of entertainment which were kept open for the reception of the soldiers, who were regaled in them *gratis*, with the most delicious fare; and they were even supplied with concubines, the more effectually to seduce them.’ Vol. ii. p. 266.

The whole of this statement, it should seem, has given umbrage to the Cork volunteers; and Mr. Townshend, who appears to have been one of the most active among them, has stepped forward, in the name of his colleagues in general, to justify them against the charges of disloyalty and want of vigor, which are here advanced against them.

After denying *the doctrine* that the catholics were compelled to engage in the late rebellion from motives of religion, and *the fact* that they did engage in it exclusively, he proceeds to tell us, that, upon the breaking out of the rebellion, he was appointed counsel to the general who commanded in the southern district, and who resided at Cork.

‘To advise and confer with the general on all occasions, to examine informers, digest their informations, and investigate and arrange concurrently with him, was an important share of my duty. It is incumbent on me to observe that there are, at Cork, two corps of yeomanry. One of them, the Loyal Cork Legion, the oldest in institution, is composed of almost all the opulent citizens; eminent bankers and merchants, together with others of the next order of credit, compose its numerous ranks; and the other corps, which bears the designation of the Cork Volunteers, is not inferior to that, nor to any other, as a military association. The former contains a considerable number also of the Roman-catholic gentry of the city and neighbourhood; the latter is almost, without an exception, composed of members of the church of Ireland, as established by law. Of this corps I had the honour to be a member—my obligations to them are not few; and my praise of them is almost a selfish indulgence. The French invasion at Bantry Bay took place immediately after their formation, and added me, as well as others, to their roll. I continued their adjutant; after I had the good fortune to enlarge that very respectable association by the incorporation of the antient and loyal corps, the Cork Boyne, the command of which my gratitude and my vanity will not permit me to forget. During the rebellion, the distribution and arrangement of the yeoman array of the city, composed of drafts from both the corps, every second night devolved upon me; so that your lordship cannot but observe, that my situation as a lawyer has enabled me to speak with some fidelity as to the nature and extent of the conspiracy, while the peculiar activity which I was called upon to exert, as an officer in the yeomanry, has placed it fully in my power to bear my testimony to the ardor and loyalty which distinguished the yeomanry of Cork universally, to the manliness of their character, and to the good service of their conduct.

‘I have my information from my own personal observation; the author of the quarto from prejudiced rumour. He seems to write *son amore*, whenever he can place an obnoxious catholic under suspicious appearances.’ P. 23.

‘Now, if it were true, the magistrates who at the time of the rebellion held the municipal authority of the city of Cork, and who were full as ardent exclusive protestants as our historian of all the rebellions, would not have had too many “compunctious visitings,” for punishing most faithfully the recreant papists of that or of any other corps—but of that corps more especially, as unhappily some party sensibility had impaired the cordiality of the two bodies of yeomanry. Now, if we find that in their loyal and ardent discernment of guilt, they had arrested of the inhabitants but three Roman-catholics, and very many protestants, and those in a city where the catholics are beyond comparison infinitely more numerous, shall we not have some conflict with our judgments to abandon facts in favour of our comprehensive historian’s assertion? John Sweeny, he observes, continued a member of the Cork legion until his arrest. This fact is diametrically otherwise. Sweeny had been expelled from his corps for disobedience of orders,

on the public parade; and this most notorious transaction took place a considerable time previous to his being arrested by the sheriff. At that arrest I was present, at the special request of the sheriff; and it was made at the very time when two unfortunate delinquents of the Dublin militia were on their way to suffer capitally, under a guard of all the garrison; and it therefore could not have had the effect which the author of the quarto ascribes to it; of preventing an insurrection intended for their liberation. I have touched upon this unimportant transaction, merely as an instance of the inaccurate manner in which he treats of and reasons upon facts.

'Sweeny then, we see my lord, did not belong to the Loyal Cork Legion when he was arrested. Now, let us proceed to speak of those other two persons, upon whose alleged disaffection one of the most respectable, high-minded and loyal corps has been indiscriminately branded. Donovan was certainly in the corps when he was arrested, and he continues so to this day. Of this man and his arrest, I am enabled to state; that he had been arrested instead of another person of the same name, whose prosecution would have been justifiable. He was, however, notwithstanding, viewed with some suspicion by a very zealous and serviceable member of the magistracy. He was detained after his arrest on this suspicion; and subsequently an informer having deposed, that a soldier had told him that he had received a shilling from Donovan to assist him to desert, it was thought necessary to resist every intention of bailing Donovan on large securities, and at length he was brought to answer for his life, on such deposition, unsupported utterly by circumstances collateral, or otherwise. It would be a very invidious task to descend into the minutiae of those little acts of favoritism and severity, which the predilections or prejudices of individuals, who exercise power at such unhappy seasons, have been almost always known to exert. With such a detail I have nothing to do. But it would not be impossible for me to shew, that something more than the guilt they were pleased to impute to this man, had animated his persecutors. The nature of the accusation against him, as it charged him with treasonable practices summarily, subjected him to answer for his life before a military tribunal. A court of inquiry, at which I attended, in distinguishing between those persons who should be tried by the ordinary proceedings of the law, and those who should be handed over to military judgment, did not take upon them to decide upon guilt or innocence, but merely on the nature of the accusation; and they therefore classed Donovan among persons amenable to the latter. There was no examination of evidence whatsoever. One of the members was of opinion, that he had competent proofs of the guilt of several; and of the number whom he desired may be left to himself, was Donovan. Upon the hearsay testimony of an approver, to whom his person was unknown, this man was arraigned in some months afterwards, when the general had resigned his command, who discountenanced this arrest, and denied his concurrence to a trial which was not justified by even plausible imputations.

'Martial law would have no terrors, if it were not liable to take the worst mode of detecting guilt and of protecting innocence—those terrors Mr. Donovan was brought to encounter; and he was in the

event discharged on the inspection of the minutes of the court-martial by the government. Thus was the discernment and justice of the king's general officer approved of and confirmed by the king's representative in Ireland; and as the proof of accusation failed, notwithstanding the magistracy exerted themselves with a diligence correspondent with the imagined guilt of the accused, I believe, I need not add, that Mr. Donovan was not a leader in the rebellion. It is very clear that the government entertained this opinion also.

'The third instance is that of Mr. Drinane, who holds a respectable situation in his corps. This gentleman was under somewhat of a similar difficulty with Mr. Donovan; he was arrested, perhaps, because he had a namesake accused of treasonable delinquency, but who, as well as Mr. Donovan's namesake, had remained unmolested.

'Mr. Drinane had the good fortune not to be obnoxious to any individual of the magistracy. He was arrested unaccused; his enlargement was unresisted, and made without any other examination than what he himself had solicited from a court of inquiry after his liberation. Their unanimous opinion asserted the innocence of an unoffending gentleman; the subsequent indemnity bill debarred him from transferring the injury he had sustained to the contemplation of a court of law, if he had been so disposed. The most abandoned of all the informers, and they were in general the most degraded, infamous and sanguinary of mankind, never, to my knowledge, blew the lightest breath of suspicion upon this gentleman.

'And now, my lord, how stands the accusation against "the popish yeomen in the Cork Legion?" First of all Sweeny, who is said to have belonged to that corps when he was arrested, it is a notorious and peremptory fact, had been expelled some time before. Mr. Donovan, who is accused of having been a leader in the rebellion, appears rather in the light of a persecuted man; and the very government, after the fullest investigation, has bestowed the stamp of its sanction upon his innocence; and Mr. Drinane, who was arrested without accusation and discharged again, by the capricious resentment of those who had occasioned that arrest, affords the third instance of the mistakes of the historian of all the rebellions; and those are the only instances on which he has presumed to rest that obloquy, which he hopes is to stigmatize a body of men of wealth, character, weight and importance to all future times, and to rivet on the catholics the crime of having been the authors of the late rebellion. Thus have the forgeries of his zeal, and the admissions of his credulity, given to the imperfect outline of ill-sketched facts, all the light and shade of a fancy piece. He follows what is extraordinary, rather than what is true. The former suits the vulgar palate, always sensible to exaggerated motives, and miraculous incidents only; while the latter turns aside from curious enormities, which our historian has so copiously dispersed throughout his quarto, to seek for those gentle and persuasive reasons which hold up the misconduct of past times to our advantage, instruction and profit, by deep and wise reflections, undisguised by passion, unperverted by error.' p. 25.

In carefully perusing the 'Observations' of sir Richard

Musgrave upon the replies of Dr. Caulfield and Mr. Townshend, we do not perceive that the evidence adduced in opposition to him is very essentially repelled by any additional testimonials of his own. If we admit, with himself, that there is some degree of special pleading introduced into Mr. Townshend's statement, we must at least confess that Mr. Townshend has, by this very plan of investigation, proved his antagonist to have been culpably hasty and inaccurate in his mode of acquiring information:—and, if we agree with him, as we most cordially do, that Dr. Caulfield has been unnecessarily frequent in his 'appeals to heaven,' we cannot exculpate the baronet from a similar charge; since in his own pamphlet we too frequently also meet with such expressions as, 'Good God! that any gentleman should make such an assertion,' p. 12; 'Good God! that a protestant clergyman should become the encomiast of a monster,' p. 55. Sir Richard nevertheless assures us—in the preface to his third edition, published since the observations of the above writers—that,

'—after the most scrupulous investigation, and after the circulation of 2350 copies, in the course of ten months, I could not discover a single error which affected the authenticity of any one transaction. On the contrary, I have received the most flattering assurances from the officers who campaigned in the late rebellion, that the military transactions have been faithfully described; and I have had the same testimony from the civil magistrates, and from those who were competent to decide upon the other events.' Vol. i. p. i.

And he adds, at the close of his Observations:

'I have received the most flattering assurances of the accuracy of my narration; particularly from the town and county of Wexford, and the city of Cork, whose loyal inhabitants equally reprobate the Reply of Doctor Caulfield and his priests, and the Letter of Mr. Townshend.' p. 64.

We have thus endeavoured to put our readers into possession of the means of determining for themselves, both upon the nature of the late sanguinary rebellion, so far as it related to the doctrines and practice of the members of the catholic communion, and upon the contradictory testimonials adduced by the antagonist writers before us. The Memoirs of Sir Richard Musgrave are, unquestionably, the fullest we have hitherto received upon this subject; but the hasty and intemperate manner in which he has collected his evidence, the fallacious and derogatory views he has formed of the doctrines of the catholic church, and the invincible hatred he displays in every page towards the members of that communion, must render them a very doubtful source of authority to every future compiler of Irish history. Surely, upon a candid review, he could not but

think himself a little too partial to his own system, in denominating the late administration of Ireland '*the mildest government in the universe*,' Observations, p. 63: and, in re-examining the conduct of the Irish militia, amounting to not less than *twenty-six thousand*, all of them catholics—in beholding them, in spite of the council of Lateran, or of any other place, destroying every rebel they met with, papist or protestant, without concerning themselves with his religious creed—he could not but relax his belief of the necessary disloyalty of the catholic communion, and confess that he has treated this much injured body with undeserved reproach. An acute investigator of facts will find causes enough for the late rebellion, without having recourse to that of religion: and if among the rebels we meet with more papists than protestants, it should be recollected that the grievances complained of affected the former in a triplicate proportion to the latter, and that their numbers are at least in the proportion of four to one throughout the entire kingdom.

ART. XI.—*The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis, translated into English Verse, by William Gifford, Esq. (Continued from p. 17 of the present Volume.)*

THE merit of Mr. Gifford, as an imitative artist, we proceed to examine. We have collected his own scattered ideas of the style of the original work, which, with us, he admires for its glowing imagery, luxuriant diction, impetuous fluency (*torrens dicendi copia*), dignity, strength, subtilty, and magnificent eloquence, occasionally obscured by slovenly lines and careless passages. A style thus elevated, Mr. Gifford assures us, he has attempted to follow, and to give Juvenal *entire*, except in his grossness, 'where he has attempted to *make him speak* as he would have spoken among us.' Exceptionable lines, which 'in all' amount to no more than half a page, are omitted. Not only in the general style, but in variety of manner, he has been ambitious to emulate the author, particularly in the thirteenth and fourteenth satires. In the twelfth satire he supposes he has '*raised*' Juvenal 'a little.' He confesses that he is more prolix than Dryden, 'who overlooked whole sections—sometimes, as in the fourteenth satire, very considerable ones.'

To render the transitions less abrupt—to obviate and disguise the difficulties which a difference of manners, habits, &c. naturally creates—and to leave the original more intelligible than he found it—are the lofty pretensions of this translator. We shall attempt to measure the degree of his success by extracts compared with original passages and contrasted with rival imitations. As the work is *avowedly* elaborate, courtesy induces us to examine

the *first* and a few selected satires with greater attention than we are enabled to bestow on all, that we may appear neither precipitate in our censure nor indiscriminating in our applause.

His first satire, harassed with the stale repetitions of declamatory poets, and irritated by the execrable vices which surround him, Juvenal commences with abrupt animation:

'Semper ego auditor tantum? numquamne reponam,
Vexatus toties rauci Theseide Codri?' JUV. I. 1, 2.

Edit. Hennin. 4to. Ultraject. 1685 *.

These lines display nothing low or colloquial. Mr. Gifford, coarse as Dryden, is inferior in brevity and spirit. We exhibit the parodies of each.

'Still shall I hear, and never quit the score,
Stunn'd with hoarse Codrus' Theseid, o'er and o'er.
DRYDEN, I. 1, 2.

'WHAT! while with one eternal mouthing hoarse,
Codrus persists on my vex'd ear to force
His Theseid, must I, to my fate resign'd,
Hear, ONLY hear, and never pay in kind?' GIFFORD, I. 1—4.

The alliterative cacophony of '*What! while with one*'—the insupportable vulgarity of '*eternal mouthing*'—the tame interpolation of '*must I, to my fate resign'd*'—and, 'to quit the score' with Dryden, the kindred inelegance of '*pay in kind*'—startled us for a moment, but prepared us for subsequent FROTH and FUSTIAN.

The original passage,

'Et nos ergo manum ferulæ subduximus,' JUV. I. 15.

is thus rendered *more intelligible!*

'I TOO CAN WRITE.—ONCE, at a pedant's frown,
I pour'd my frothy fustian! on the town.' GIFFORD, I. 21, 22.

In the procession of villains who awakened the sarcastic energy of Juvenal, passes the litter of a self-important lawyer;

'Caussidici nova cum veniat lectica Mathonis
Plena ipso.——' JUV. I. 32, 33.

The defects in this translation are striking:

'When bloated Matho, in a new-built chair,
Stuff'd with himself, is borne abroad for air.' GIFFORD, I. 50, 51.

That Matho was '*borne abroad for air*' we were first informed by Dryden, whose gratuitous hemistich Mr. Gifford inserts; but he omits an essential word, '*Caussidici*,' which glares before him in

* This edition will supply our future quotations.

the original text; while in a note he wanders to procure evidence from the *seventh* satire, that the gentleman whom, in the *first*, he hears about *for air* 'followed the profession of a lawyer.' The *pleading* Matho is not unperceived by Dryden. '*Plena ipso*' becomes '*bloated*' and '*stuffed with himself*!' Mr. Gifford over-stuffs us, unmindful that a caricature is not a copy.

An *alto-relievo* on the silver plate—'*stantem extra pocula caprum*' (Juv. I. 76)—is less prominent in Mr. Gifford's '*sculptured*' than in the *embossed* of his competitor.

Juvenal has admirably compressed into six well-known lines the multifarious topics of his Muse. In omissions and incorrectness, this translator, except at his close, exceeds Dryden. The inferiority of each to the original our readers will discover from these contrasted extracts:

'Ex quo Deucalion, nimbis tollentibus æquor,
Navigio montem ascendit; sorteisque poposcit,
Paullatimque animâ caluerunt mollia saxa,
Et maribus nudas ostendit Pyrrha puellas:
Quidquid agunt homines, votum, timor, ira, voluptas,
Gaudia, discursus, nostri est farrago libelli.' Juv. I. 81—86,

'Count from the time since old Deucalion's boat,
Rais'd by the flood, did on Parnassus float;
And, scarcely mooring on the cliff, implor'd
An oracle how man might be restor'd;
When soften'd stones and vital breath ensu'd,
And virgins naked were by lovers view'd;
Whatever since that golden age was done,
What human-kind desires, and what they shun—
Rage, passions, pleasures, impotence of will,
Shall this satirical collection fill.' DRYDEN, I. 122—131.

'E'er since Deucalion and his Pyrrha stood
On old Parnassus (by the general flood
Upraised), and, taught by heaven, behind them *threw*
Their mother's bones, that *soften'd* as they *flew*—
Softened, and, with the breath of life made warm,
Assum'd by slow degrees the human form;
Whatever wild desires have swell'd the breast,
Whatever passions have the soul possess'd;
Joy, sorrow, fear, love, hatred, transport, rage,
Shall form the motley subject of my page.'

GIFFORD, I. 137—146.

How languid and prosaic in his commencement—how careless is Mr. Gifford in his progress! He suffers the *navigium* to founder at sea; and leaves Deucalion drenched on Parnassus, deprived of his bark. Torpidly incurious, *not sensitively timid*, he

overlooks the '*nudas puellas*' whom Pyrrha '*maribus ostendit*,' and,

'While melting stones with gradual life grow warm,' remains insensible to the sweetness of

'Paullatimque animâ caluerunt mollia saxa;'
unexpectedly introducing *his own* Deucalion and Pyrrha, with '*their mother's softened bones*'—*flying!*

We forbear to comment on slighter *incuria*.

Quid confert purpura major
Optandum, si Laurenti custodit in agro
Conductas Corvinus ovis? ego possideo plus
Pallante et Licinis.' JUV. I. 106—109.

'Your boasted nobles! Can they say as much?
There's poor Corvinus, of patrician stock,
Tends, for a goat a day, a grazier's flock:
Tut! I can buy 'em all!' GIFFORD, I. 180—183.

In this impure jargon speaks the freedman of Mr. Gifford: the *libertus* of Juvenal utters his boastings in diction at least unoffending. We invoke the manes of Phædrus for power to charm our groveling versifier into a persuasion that the language of emancipated slavery is not necessarily disgusting.

With the most favourable specimen of his translation we shall close our extracts from the first satire.

A terrific eulogy on Lucilius, which we quote from the original, has animated the translator: his imitation displays spirit and facility. But the *scourge* of Mr. Gifford is less dreadful than the '*unsheathed falchion*' of Juvenal. To '*infremuit*,' the force of our language is perhaps inadequate; and '*tacita culpa*,' the *secret sin*, evaporates in paraphrase.

'Ense velut stricto, quoties Lucilius ardens
Infremuit, rubet auditor, cui frigida mens est
Criminibus, tacitâ sudant præcordia culpâ.
Inde iræ et lacrymæ.' JUV. I. 165—168.

'But when Lucilius, fired with virtuous rage,
Nerves his bold arm to scourge an impious age,
The conscious villain shudders at his sin,
And burning blushes speak the pangs within;
Cold drops of sweat from every member roll,
And growing terrors harrow up the soul.—
Then tears of shame and dire revenge succeed—'

GIFFORD, I. 269—275.

These are superior lines; but the translator, in his *general* execution, is undeserving of commendation. By extending one hundred and seventy lines to nearly three hundred, his copy is unavoidably enfeebled, and can endure no competition with the original. The coarseness of Dryden is transfused rather

than the dignity of Juvenal. Peculiar elegance or accuracy we have seldom observed. After years of labour—after 'the strictest revision!' by a priest, a barrister, and a bookseller, combined '*son linge sale à blanchir*'—in a single poem his sheets are sullied by numerous stains.

We recollect a few among many spots: *W* it is admitted as responsive to *yet*, *feast* to *guest*, *raise* to *please*: the syllables *weight*, *heat*, *freight*, are inserted as a triplet of rhymes! In ten consecutive lines one couplet alone is correct (v. 161—170). The poetic licence is employed with harshness. Our ears are 'mortally offended' with lines similar to

'Hath trimm'd th' *exuberance* of his sounding beard.' V. 39.

Our grammatical feelings disapprove the tasteless ellipsis—

'When *he* *hopes*, presumptuous! *a command!*' V. 98.

We might continue this enumeration to a tedious length.

In his notes, which the translator has drawn from sources of easy access, useful elucidations are often clouded by a phraseology contemptibly colloquial. 'But how is this made out—O! very easily.'

We cannot however pause minutely to consider his notes. The prose of Mr. Gifford we shall dismiss in his own manner, and with his own phrases;—for, 'to be plain,' 'what signifies it?' When sad to see, we 'cannot away with' a great deal of his verse, 'not a whit' less familiar. Our duty, 'as everyone knows,' 'might be shuffled off'; yet, 'as we don't sleep for every body,' we fancy we cannot refuse to bring forward glaring defects, without going a little too far. We are eager to commend GENIUS, 'though full as much so, by the bye,' to expose PRESUMPTION.

The expressions marked in the Italic character may convince our readers how strongly Mr. Gifford *redolet*, or, in his own English, 'SMACKS OF' vulgarity. Need we go farther to confirm, by the example of this translator, the trite maxim—

*Quo semel est imbuta recens, servabit odorem
Testa diu?*

In our next publication we shall resume, and, we hope, complete our task.

(To be continued.)

ART. XII.—*Sermons on the Parables.* By John Farrer, M.A.
8vo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1801.

THE parables of our Saviour form a great body of religious and moral instruction; though the generality of readers and hearers seldom give themselves the trouble of inquiring into the

whole extent of the information they are intended to convey. What appears on the surface is unquestionably and very highly beautiful; yet there is a farther advantage attending this species of instruction, and especially in the example before us, that, while it is chiefly calculated to excite curiosity by its external address, its allegorical application will admit of, and must gratify, the most profound researches. The author of these discourses is fully penetrated with this sentiment, and, in the volume before us, has communicated much information, in a very pleasing manner, on the nature of parables in general, and illustrated the truth of his remarks by very sensible and just observations on a variety of them, as considered separately. If this volume should be favourably received, a second is promised, which will complete the whole of the author's plan; and we have been so much gratified with the perusal of this first attempt, that we look forward with pleasure to the accomplishment of the author's total design.

The present work consists of twelve discourses. In the three first, are considered the general nature and tendency of parables: while the remainder are dedicated to particular parables, which are explained on a uniform and comprehensive plan. In the first place are investigated the occasion of the parable and the disposition of the hearers; secondly, its literal sense, and the circumstances of the narrative; thirdly, the figurative or spiritual sense; and, lastly, a general application is deduced, as a lesson of doctrine and practice to the whole Christian world. We read with pleasure that these discourses have been addressed to parish congregations from the pulpit; and we may add that they will bear repetition, and frequent repetition, to the same congregation; for there is much information contained in each discourse which cannot be carried away at the first hearing; and they comprise many points which deserve to be strongly impressed on the minds of the audience which has the good fortune to receive the admonitions of so useful a teacher.

Every discourse admits of sufficient topics for us to enlarge on; but that we may not trespass too much on our limits, we will, from a single instance, present to our readers a general sketch of the author's plan and powers of execution. For this purpose we have selected the discourse on the grain of mustard-seed. This parable was delivered by our Saviour from a small vessel; while the multitude of hearers arranged on the adjoining shore suggested probably to his mind 'the beginning of that church he was come to establish.' The rapid growth of this church or kingdom is represented by two similitudes—the one drawn from rural, the other from domestic, life; the one from the image of a grain of mustard-seed, the other from that of leaven. In the prophecies, temporal

kingdoms were delineated under the image of trees and forests; whence one of a spiritual nature, which reprobates every kind of force, is aptly compared to an herb increasing from a small seed, till it acquire its full growth and stature; and the truth of the prophecy is traced in the history of its progress. The smallness of the seed is typical of the origin of our faith—'a poor unlettered peasant, distinguished neither by birth nor education, from an obscure city of Galilee, announcing to mankind that the kingdom of heaven was at hand.' His embassy was indeed of the utmost importance, and proved to spiritual minds the real greatness of his character; yet he was brought to an untimely end; and few at his death had imbibed his doctrines. His disciples at first confined their preaching to the house of Israel; but they were diligent 'in planting afterwards and watering this divine seed,' which took root in every part of the Roman empire, and, at the end of three centuries, was protected by the monarch on the throne. The barbarians who overthrew the Roman government, embraced, when they were settled in their new dominions, the faith of the conquered; and although the Mahometan apostasy carried away numbers, the plant still extended northwards, and the worshippers of Odin rejected their superstition for the doctrine of a crucified Saviour. Since that period, and particularly since the reformation, the plant has been progressively increasing, has gained extensive ground on the continent of America, has been preached on the frozen coast of Greenland, and been received on the sultry shores of Senegal. Thus the prophecy is gradually accomplishing; and, from what we have already beheld, no doubt can be entertained that 'the cross of Christ shall, in no short period of time, universally triumph—the earth shall be filled with the knowledge of the Lord, as the waters cover the sea.'

The double application of this parable is next considered as it relates—first, to the disciples then present, and, secondly, to Christians in general. To the first it held out encouragement in the great undertaking in which they were shortly to be engaged, and assurance that, weak as their plant might seem, it would spread itself, through their means, over the whole world. To other Christians it affords an argument of faith, and an exhortation to a devout practice.

'That a plant, arising from so small a seed, should in spite of all incumbrance grow to the height and compass of so large a tree, is an undeniable proof, that the special eye of divine Providence continually watched its growth, and that the dews of heavenly grace have been abundantly dispensed to give it nurture and promote the increase. That a kingdom, risen from such weak beginnings, and advancing by such improbable means to so large and extensive a dominion, should successfully prevail in spite of every impediment

from the passions and prejudices of men, and should finally triumph over all the kingdoms of the world, is an unquestionable argument, that its origin was from heaven, and that its builder and maker was God.' P. 180.

It is an encouragement to our practice; for it directs us to a place of protection and comfort in the unavoidable troubles of human life.

'While the parable is understood to represent the rise and progress of religion among the nations of the earth, it may also be accepted to denote its rise and progress in the inner man. For as the seed of religion has had an external and visible growth in the field of the world, so it also still continues to have an internal and invisible growth in the human heart.' P. 184.

On this growth in the human heart, several excellent and pertinent remarks are offered, from which we shall select only the last, as a proof of the piety and sound sense which guide our author in the application of his different texts.

'To prevent every obstacle to its growth in the inner man, we should invariably keep it impressed on our regard in our secular concerns and in our dealings with the world. It is not indeed to be expected of us in our present state of frailty, and while we abide in the world, to have God and religion always in our thoughts; for temporal things demand a portion of our care; and as our temporal, so our spiritual concerns require some degree of relaxation and amusement. But this is indispensably incumbent on us, that we live under a general sense of the divine will, that we engage in nothing repugnant to the law of God, that we endeavour in all our conversation and demeanour to promote these two great objects of religious precept, the glory of God, and the benefit of men, and that we strive to maintain an unvarying habit of religion in our hearts, our dispositions, and our lives.' P. 186.

From this short specimen, a favourable opinion will, we presume, be formed of these discourses; which may very usefully be pondered by the young divine, as models of sound instruction to his congregation: and in those families where the excellent custom is still preserved of devoting part of the Sunday evening to the perusal of a sermon, this volume may be employed with great advantage. Should it moreover be re-perused several times in succession, so that every branch of the family may be able to give a good account of each separate discourse, a body of Scriptural information will be hence obtained, on which they may dwell with increasing satisfaction, while new beauties will be daily discovered in their Bible.

ART. XIII.—*An Examination of the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Claims of Remuneration for the Vaccine-Pock Inoculation : containing a Statement of the principal Historical Facts of the Vaccina.* By George Pearson, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 4s. Sewed. Johnson. 1802.

IT is painful to see party take the lead in scientific questions, and the value of a discovery unjustly depreciated or extravagantly raised, according to the connexions of those who speak of it. We know the retort that will be immediately leveled at ourselves, and are ready to hear that in no other periodical work has the spirit of party been more obviously displayed on this subject. On returning to the various articles as they have occurred, some opposition to this vicarious eruption is certainly conspicuous. But it is, we think, only the cautious hesitation of a candid inquirer, when assertions the most improbable, and opinions the most incongruous, were progressively advanced. We can claim the merit of having suggested many questions which have been properly pursued, and in this way have contributed to give a greater consistency to the whole. It is certainly now a national concern, and has been espoused by parliament. That the legislature have decided improperly, it does not become us to say; yet, we think, a more minute discrimination would have avoided a few objections which malice or prejudice may now raise. Our observations may be attributed to either; but we know that the truest friends of the new attempt have thought their cause more assisted than injured by cautious hesitation, and have rather solicited objections than opposed them. Our remarks, however, will only be valuable as they are supported by facts and arguments. In the present moment they will not be popular; but they will stand on record, as a clear—and, we trust, an impartial—view of the subject in its present state.

The petitioner claims a reward for having discovered that a disease called the cow-pox may be communicated to the human frame, and secure the person affected with it from the small-pox—thus communicating a comparatively milder disease, instead of one which, even from inoculation, is often severe and dangerous. We shall not follow the author of the examination in some minute distinctions of language and meaning, but at once observe that the claim is fallacious.—We must return to our former reasoning. It was a well-known fact, in many counties, that, when persons had been infected by milking a cow with these peculiar eruptions, they were incapable of receiving the infection of the small-pox. Where then is the distinction? The constitution can receive it from touching the sores, and may of course receive it by inserting the matter under the skin. To call this a discovery, is a mockery, and an

abuse of words. Has not the Venereal disease, has not the small-pox itself, been communicated in both ways? and does not the least experienced pathologist know that what *may* be taken up by the absorbents of the skin is very certainly conveyed to the constitution when the skin is wounded? It would be a disgrace to a medical man to call this a discovery; and we have reprehended the very warm and intemperate language held on this subject by some modern authors, with sufficient severity.

If we inquire on what the claim for remuneration rests, we may be told of the loss of time, the loss of practice, owing to the deep investigations thus communicated—and the great probability of his gains being ten times doubled, had the author pursued his practise as a secret process. These allegations are still more weak. Every one must know that the few cases recorded by Dr. Jenner might have been observed while running. The original fact was known, and the application only was required; which, every medical man must see, would consume but a very moderate portion of time—no talents, but eye-sight—no mental exertion, but common attention. Dr. Jenner, indeed, resigned his practice on this publication, and came to London. He might as well have done so on the publication of his paper on the natural history of the cuckoo, and expected a national remuneration. Would he have been less respected in Gloucestershire, had he remained there, because he proposed the inoculation of the cow-pox as a substitute for the small-pox? Could he expect attention for general medical knowledge in the metropolis, because he had luckily caught at the application of a common fact? Either supposition is ridiculous. If he resigned his practice, he was at liberty to do so; but this at least is no foundation for the reward.

Again: it is alleged by some of the evidences, that, had he chosen to have concealed it, he might have commanded a more ample recompense from the public. This we deny. Had he come before the public without the body of experience which common observation had for ages afforded, he would have been ridiculed as a projector, or been despised as a quack. It would have been impossible to have gained attention; for this plain reason, that the life of man was required for the test of his assertions. With all the fondness of quackery which we see daily displayed, this would have been a pill too difficult to swallow.

The result of all this, it will be said, is to prove the decision of parliament erroneous. Whatever may be the consequence drawn, not the slightest reflexion can be thrown on the committee, or on the parliament who decided on their report; for they were *not* acting in their own line, and they *did* act on the evidence they received. The evidences called were the best, and the most respectable. We are confident they spoke what they thought; but, if not a single fact have been distorted,

if not a single argument been misrepresented in this view of the subject, it may perhaps appear, even to themselves, probable, that their thoughts and representations were wholly on the favourable side.

Dr. Pearson, in the present examination of the subject, has perhaps tortured words and expressions somewhat too severely. He has, however, greatly elucidated our knowledge of the history of the cow-pox, by bringing forward much original evidence of the practice and its effects. He has shown that the inoculation of the cow-pox was not a new attempt; but of this Dr. Jenner was not informed; and consequently, whatever his merit may be, it is not lessened by this pre-occupancy. Dr. Pearson stated the prior claims to the committee: but his evidence was not perhaps received with due attention; and if, as Mr. Banks asserted in the house, the committee were rather parties than judges—if they were ‘nominees’ instead of impartial inquirers—it will not be surprising.

If we refer to Dr. Jenner’s work, and the very few cases there recorded, we shall see some erroneous positions, which greatly prejudiced us against the practice, but which further experience has destroyed. We have said enough of the supposed *fomes*, the horse’s heel, which offers the most disgusting image, and has deprived many valetudinarians of their salutary meals. Let it be true or false, it has no connexion with the subject; and we cannot suppose that parliament granted ten thousand pounds for the discovery of this beastly practice of milking with hands yet reeking from masses of corruption. We find, however, suggestions of phagedænic ulcers following the inoculation, and of a spurious cow-pox not distinguishable from the true kind—each equally unfounded. Indeed the latter was to us a circumstance so striking, as to destroy all our expectations of benefit from the inoculation. It appeared a subterfuge to explain adverse facts, and totally destroyed the fancied security. We now know that the inoculation may fail, as that of small-pox; but we can detect the failure; and no one can be pronounced secure but those whose disorder has been carefully attended by experienced eyes. The period at which the matter should be taken is said, in the work before us, to be indifferent; but we can scarcely yet think, with Dr. Pearson, that it would be equally eligible to take it from an advanced or an early pustule. These, however, are not among the merits of Dr. Jenner; but, for giving a real well-founded security for ascertaining with minute precision the various facts, we have infinite obligations to Dr. Woodville and Dr. Pearson.

To publish the fact and the application, was undoubtedly meritorious. If Dr. Jenner’s admirers please, we will consider him as a public benefactor; but we will not raise him to the rank of a discoverer—to a philosopher of the first magnitude—

to an object meriting what we think an extravagant reward. Dr. Jenner's exertions would have been of little value without the improvements of his successors; and, indeed, from the circumstances stated, would have sunk into oblivion, if not rested on the secure basis of more extensive and clearer observation. Dr. Jenner in having started the subject, and pursued it somewhat carelessly, left it and his residence, seemingly splenetic and angry. Having dropped the foundling, he seems displeased that any one should have cherished and supported it.

In the examination before us, we perceive Dr. Pearson's spirit somewhat indignant at the extravagant claims of Dr. Jenner's friends to the exclusive praises bestowed on him. He traces the history of our knowledge on this subject, and shows that the advantages of infection from the cow-pox were well known to many individuals. Why they should not have been previously published, appears to be singular.

In this pamphlet, as we have already remarked, there are many elucidations of the nature of cow-pox, which, we trust, will not be overlooked. It undoubtedly arises from a specific matter, wholly distinct from any other; for, conveyed through many hundred subjects, it still produces the same disease, without any variation of symptoms. It will not affect those who have had the small-pox, and will not affect a person a second time. No such disorder as the spurious cow-pox exists; for the true complaint is produced, or a casual inflammation only. Every practitioner knows that a person is not secure from taking the small-pox after inoculation, if the inflammation of the puncture and its consequences have not followed each other in regular order. It is the same with the cow-pox; and the true disorder, or none, is produced. The error seems to have arisen from this: the true disease is in itself so slight, that the total absence of complaint can scarcely be detected. As the progress of the pustule is now, however, so well known, and is so accurately delineated in the present pamphlet, little inconvenience can arise. The following facts, respecting the co-incidence of the variolous and vaccine poison, are new and curious.

‘ 1. I have already ascertained by the many trials I have made of inoculating variolous matter, even a day later than the vaccine inoculation, that if this latter took effect, the variolous infection only produced, at the most, a pimple for the three or four first days, and an imperfect small-pox vesicle during the succeeding days, which seldom suppurated, but usually began to change into a scab before the tenth day, without any small-pox like eruptions; meanwhile the vaccine pock continued its usual march through its different stages. When the variolous inoculation was instituted at a later period after the vaccine, but before the 6th or 7th day, the pimple only was sometimes produced in the inoculated part, which disappeared in a few days; but at other times a small vesicle succeeded the pimple, which,

however, became a small scab usually on the 9th or 10th day, without leaving a cicatrix; and this pimple never suppurated. If the small-pox poison be inoculated as late as the 7th, 8th, or 9th days, I have frequently seen a small pimple produced, but oftentimes with not even more effect than that from a puncture or scratch with an unstained lancet.

‘ 2. In the reverse order of insition with the two poisons, at least with the vaccine, within three or four days from the variolous, the small-pox was excited in the usual manner; and the vaccina observed the march, as above described in the variolous inoculated part.

‘ 3. When the two kinds of infection were inserted on the same day, usually both of them took effect; and the two affections pursued their course pretty exactly, with equal paces, at the same periods, and with the same phænomena as when they take place singly. In such cases the matter of the part inoculated with variolous infection, and of the eruptions, were found to produce the small-pox; and the matter of the vaccine excited the vaccina, on inoculation. In these instances a cicatrix was left in each arm.

‘ 4. It has been already represented, that the fact above stated, now under remark, is referable to a new law of agency of morbid poisons, to wit, the small-pox effluvia being introduced into the constitution, nearly coteremporary with the introduction of the vaccine matter by inoculation; the former exerts its specific power of producing the small-pox in four, five, or six days sooner than it usually does singly, so as to keep pace with the constitutional affection (as far as can be perceived) of the vaccina, or nearly so. This coincidence which was not suspected by any physician (who, like Dr. Woodville, knows so accurately the history of the facts of infectious diseases) to depend upon a new law, seems to be the truth; for there was no pretence for doubting that the vaccine inoculation, analogous to the variolous, would supersede the agency of the variolous poison admitted casually in the state of effluvia. Dr. Woodville, however, did not scruple to recall his opinion in January 1801 (*Med. and Phys. Journal*, p. 6), by which time the facts of experience had afforded indications of the law, now, I believe, generally admitted to furnish a satisfactory explanation.

‘ 5. The fact that the small-pox by effluvia, or in the casual way, can take place within a limited time after the cow-pock, was first observed in Mr. Malim’s case, see *Med. and Chir. Review*, No. 58; and I think Mr. Bevan’s case (*Med. and Phys. Journal*, p. 455, vol. V.) is an instance of the same kind; but such occurrences are extremely rare, unless some of them occurred, as I suspect, although unobserved, among the eruptive patients at the Small-pox Hospital. However, I see no known principle to which these facts can be referred; therefore it will be for further contemplation to determine whether or no they also indicate a distinct new law.’ P. 141.

We have thus given a concise view of the subject, in some measure as represented in the pamphlet before us, but, in general, according to our own conceptions of it. We have not followed Dr. Pearson by steps; for we think his remarks somewhat

too minute; and have preferred giving his views together with our own. It may be objected, perhaps, that he is not sufficiently dispassionate; but we can scarcely blame him. His own labours, with those of Dr. Woodville, are so varied, important, and beneficial—they have placed a subject encumbered with difficulties and contradictions in a point of view so clear, forcible, and scientific—that they cannot without a little indignation see praises and rewards strikingly exclusive. We can truly say, that, had the subject been left as it was by Dr. Jenner, the doctrine would have found few advocates, and the practice fewer followers.

ART. XIV.—*A Scenic Arrangement of Isaiah's Prophecy, relating to the Fall of the renowned City of Babylon and Belshazzar its King. By Nathaniel Scarlett. 4to. 3s. Boards. Scarlett. 1802.*

BABYLON forms of itself an important feature in sacred history; and its relation to the Jews renders it a frequent topic of prophecy. The extent of the city, the manners of its inhabitants, the mode of its overthrow, or rather its complete annihilation, fill the mind with astonishment; and the Christian is continually led to make the metropolis of an empire once so renowned the object of his pious meditation; because it is the type of that modern Babylon, which, equally with the ancient, has been a most horrid scourge to mankind, and whose destruction will release the church of Christ from the yoke of slavery and superstition. On this account we viewed with particular pleasure the attempt in the work before us, to place in a clearer light the sublime prophecy of Isaiah, and to impress on the reader the grandeur and propriety of every scene on which he enlarges. The whole is executed with great taste and judgement. A brief description is first given of the city, which seems not to have been surpassed in extent and magnificence by any subsequent metropolis: to this a sketch is subjoined of the life and character of its last monarch;—a historic account of his fall, and the capture of the city, concludes the introduction to the poem.

The poem is contained in the fourteenth and fifteenth chapters of Isaiah, of which two versions are given—the one taken from king James's or the common Bible, the other from bishop Lowth's translation. As these versions are printed in the same page, an excellent opportunity is afforded to the English reader to compare the two together, and thence to form some idea of the poetry of the Hebrews, which is rendered very obscure in the vulgar translation. In the arrangement before us, various speakers are introduced—some of the characters evidently ficti-

tion; and therefore unnecessary in the sacred drama. The poem opens with a speech, supposed to be that of Isaiah himself, and which is contained in the first verse of the thirteenth chapter; but this verse may be rather considered as the title of the poem than the speech of any character to be afterwards introduced into it. The second and third verses are appropriated to Jehovah, speaking in person; the fourth and fifth to Isaiah again, prophetically viewing the approaching instruments of destruction: from the sixth to the tenth inclusive, the prophet addresses the Babylonians: from the eleventh to the thirteenth, Jehovah denounces his impending wrath; thence, to the end of the sixteenth, Isaiah enlarges on its fatal effects. Jehovah then resumes his speech, and declares the horrors accompanying his wrath to be executed by the Medes, and foretells the complete annihilation of the pride of Babylon. In the fourteenth chapter, Isaiah brings comfort to the Jewish nation; and introduces at the end of the fourth verse a chorus of Jews, to sing their triumphant song on the fall of their oppressors. This is contained in five verses; and at the ninth, the prolocutor of the generalissimo of Hades—a very awkward title and character—introduces the fallen monarch into Hades, who is received with insulting language (in part of the tenth and the eleventh verses) by Sardanapalus and Laborosoarchod, the shades of departed monarchs. Returning from the mouth of Hades, Isaiah finds a number of Jews standing round the body of the deceased monarch, who express their astonishment at his fallen state in the six succeeding verses. After them, the funeral mourners take up the same theme; and, at the twenty-first verse, Jehovah is again introduced, to complete the denunciation against Babylon, and, in the most solemn manner, to make his purpose irrevocable. At the twenty-sixth verse, Isaiah again steps forward, and completes the representation by a pious reflexion on the impotency of all human means to resist the decrees of Jehovah.

In this allotment of the various parts of the poem, we can find little to object to; and the reader, by attending more to the distinctive characters, will feel a greater interest in the composition:—yet it was unnecessary to give the chief of Hades a generalissimo, and much more so for him to require, on so solemn an occasion, a prolocutor: the names also of Sardanapalus and Laborosoarchod might have been better omitted; and the words they are supposed to have uttered might have proceeded with greater effect—as the prophet evidently intended they should—from a chorus of departed monarchs.

‘He maketh to rise up from their thrones, all the kings of the nations.

All of them shall accost thee, and shall say unto thee ;—’ P. 18.

A short account of the literal fulfilment of the prophecy follows; whence the author makes, besides others, the following inference.

‘ The fulfilment of prophecy teaches us that there is one self-existent first cause, Jehovah, in contradistinction to the gods Belshazzar and others have worshipped: that Jehovah is omniscient, and sees all things past, present, and to come; all possible causes and effects, are open and naked before him!

‘ Fulfilment of prophecy confirms divine revelation to man in such a plain, intelligible, and unanswerable manner, as to put it out of the power of infidelity to overthrow or discredit its infallible evidence.

‘ The fulfilment of prophecy evidences that Jehovah is omnipotent, possessed of power to fulfil all his purposes: and as the declarations of events before they come to pass, shew Jehovah’s infinite wisdom and excellent council, so their exact accomplishment proves him to be a God of truth and immutability: that HE “ Is not a man that he should lie, nor the son of man that he should repent:” that what he hath spoken he will surely make good; as such,

JEHOVAH

IS A PROPER OBJECT OF TRUST

AND

OF UNBOUNDED CONFIDENCE.’ P. 27.

We have given a longer statement of this small performance than our limits will absolutely justify, as well on account of the evident piety of the author, as to encourage others, in the perusal of the sacred writings, to mark with a greater degree of attention, than many in general are so accustomed, the different characters who are supposed to be uttering the sublimest parts of prophecy.

ART. XV.—*An Enquiry into the Nature and Effects of the Paper-Credit of Great Britain.* By Henry Thornton, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.

IN the first ages of the world, commerce was necessarily confined to the bartering of one species of commodity for another. In process of time, the precious metals were detected, and dug up from the bowels of the earth; which creating a standard whereby each party might estimate the value of his goods, and being easily divisible into small portions, they became a convenient instrument of commerce; and the invention was doubtless the subject of much applause in those countries into which it was first introduced. After some experience of the advantage attending

this intercourse between the buyer and seller, the inconveniences to which it was nevertheless found subject must by degrees have made an impression on the public mind; and the necessity of a perpetual recurrence to weights and scales was superseded by a stamp, which determined the weight of the coin, and the proportionate value of a piece of one to that of a piece of another metal. As confidence increased between man and man, and the art of writing came into general use among the more wealthy part of the community, it was frequently found more convenient still to promise the transfer of a certain quantity of metal, rather than to pay it at the actual time of the bargain and sale. In this manner small pieces of paper, or promissory notes, became very beneficial in the most extensive transactions; and the further transfer of such notes of individuals from one hand to another connected the subjects of various countries into a species of commercial republic with its own laws and customs, of which a mutual confidence, not to be broken by domestic regulations, was the main spring of the constitution. The representation of a large sum of money on a small piece of paper could not have been long adopted before some persons would be found ready and willing to convert such a medium to their own private advantage, and, when in want of cash, would, in concert with other persons, issue such pieces of paper, either ordering or promising to pay, when no bargain or sale had passed between the parties. This transaction is not always fraudulent, though in general it is liable to such an imputation; for a respectable merchant may occasionally be in want of a sum of money, and may in this manner supply his want, without fraudulent intentions. Paper, having thus been turned from its original purpose of declaring the sum of money due for commodities actually transferred, was by an easy thought converted into a species of money itself; which, as long as confidence subsists between those who issue and those who take it, answers all the purposes of gold and silver, with this superior advantage, that the pen of the writer may at any time coin a sum to any amount he pleases. The confidence on which this paper rests may be either real or imaginary. It is real when the persons issuing the paper have real securities for the payment of all the notes they issue:—it is imaginary when such a fund is not in the possession of the issuers, and there is either a tacit agreement between the issuers and takers, or an actual law of the land, that certain pieces of paper with certain marks shall pass current for the sums of money whose denominations they bear. A class of men or a nation where this species of confidence prevails wants no mines of Potosi—stands not in need of steam engines, and furnaces, and crucibles—cannot be cheated by the slaves who dig, or by their superintendents while digging—needs no men of war to convoy its precious stores;—a few printing-presses and a few writers will

alone be sufficient, and easily manufacture paper into money to answer the demands of the most extensive circulation.

In the midst of a vast heap of extraneous and not very intelligible matter in this work, we find this last position corroborated by our author, who informs us that 'the metropolis of Great Britain is so circumstanced, that the issue of an extraordinary quantity of Bank-paper, for the purpose of effecting the payments of London, in a considerable degree resembles the creation of an extraordinary supply of gold for the general uses of the world.'

With a view to this last species of paper-credit, this work was evidently written; and its prominent tendency is to vindicate the late conduct of the Bank, while at the same time it suggests the propriety of a limitation respecting the circulation of its paper. Previous to the investigation of the conduct of the Bank, the nature of commercial credit—paper-credit—commercial capital—trade by barter—money—bills of exchange and notes—fictitious bills—circulating paper—bank-notes, are all progressively considered. The tritest notions on these subjects are here once more retailed, yet not without a considerable degree of obscurity; and we waded through a large mass of preparatory matter, delivered in the driest style, with the hope alone of deriving some degree of information as we proceeded to the main purport of the work. We come at last, however, to the Bank; and the author advances his reasons why its notes should not be greatly diminished; he shews its liability to be exhausted to guineas—a fact of which no one could be ignorant who considers the nature of the institution; and he assures us that the suspension of its cash payments was not owing to too great an issue of paper, nor to too extensive loans, and that the interference of parliament was proper and justifiable.

The balance of trade—the course of exchange—the effect of exchange on the gold coin, are next regularly brought forward; and the minister is justified in continuing still further the suspension of payments at the bank. As gold is not to be provided at a moment's warning, the directors of the Bank are again vindicated from blame in not having beforehand made a more adequate provision of guineas. The fluctuation of the balance of trade—a war, 'unprecedented as that in which we have lately been engaged, was not to be anticipated'—two short harvests, and 'an importation of corn to the value of fifteen or twenty millions'—these are the justifications of the conduct of the Bank directors in that crisis, 'during which they proceeded perhaps with too great fear and caution, rather than with too little.' There seems, therefore, to be a presumption that a character, 'if not for caution, at least for tolerable prudence, must have generally been their due.' A certain degree of prudence cannot assuredly be denied to those persons who, feeling the pressure of temporary difficulties, cut the Gordian knot, by ceasing their pay-

ments, and by obtaining the sanction of the legislature for such a stoppage; but the main point—the connexion between the Bank and the ministers, by which their difficulties in the apprehension of some were produced—is not sufficiently investigated; and the prudence of their conduct in this respect must remain a question till time shall have opened to us the means of further information.

The advantages and disadvantages of country banks come next under examination; of which the former are stated with a greater degree of precision than the latter. Country banks are said to be advantageous, in the accommodations they afford to numberless persons, particularly those in trade, in furnishing to many the means of laying out at interest, and in a safe manner, such money as they may have to spare: they are beneficial, also, by adding, through the issue of their paper, to the productive capital of the country, and by augmenting the public revenue through the tax imposed on bills and notes. They are disadvantageous, from their tendency to produce occasionally a derangement and suspension of commerce, as well as an intermission of manufacturing labour. This tendency in country banks, more than in that of London, we cannot perceive; for, on the contrary, it should seem that the tendency in one great bank to produce this occasional derangement is checked by a number of banks, which cannot be each of them conceived to be involved in the calamity of a single supposable failure. The industry of Devonshire will scarcely feel a check from the bankruptcy of a bank in Northumberland; and the Glasgow banks may be under the greatest pressure, whilst those of Kent may enjoy the highest confidence. The failure of a country bank will distress, to a certain degree, the persons concerned in it within a small district; but the failure of any bank, even of the Bank of England, is by no means of that importance which it is the common custom of great moneyed men to make us believe. Being accustomed to deal largely in money, and feeling the advantage of this latter bank to themselves, they ascribe a wonderful importance to all its operations; and the landed interest is only at length beginning to open its eyes, and to learn the distinction between the miller and him without whom the miller's trade would be useless. Substitutes may be found for the mill, but not for the raiser of corn and tiller of the ground.

The notes of country banks pass into the hands chiefly of the lower classes, who are not able to distinguish between the stability of different houses; and thus a degree of currency is given to inferior paper. In a period of danger, also, many country bankers prescribe to themselves more than ordinary reserve in the issue of their notes, and hence the amount of country bank notes is liable to great fluctuation; and what is evidently the greatest of these supposed evils, is, that the Bank of England has to supply the occasional wants of other banks at a time of consternation,

independently of its own—a burden which ‘we may naturally suppose that it does not very cheerfully endure.’ It is said also—but we do not believe the assertion—that ‘the capital given to the country through the use of country bank-notes is only equal to the amount of the gold which they cause to be exported.’ If this were really the case, nothing could be said more strongly in favour of country banks; and their advantage in this single article must evidently far preponderate against all the disadvantages urged against them. Some other evils are mentioned; but one evident benefit attending on them is forgotten. By means of country banks the profits of banking are divided between town and country. If London were allowed to possess the monopoly of its enormous bank, the profits drawn to the traders round the exchange would be immense. Each country bank is now a dam to preserve within its own district its own wealth; it serves for the convenience of the country gentleman, the farmer, the tradesman; it enriches those who have the management of the concern, and whose wealth is in general spent in improvements within the district. Hence, in some parts of England, the predilection for their own notes is so strong, that a Bank of England note is a curiosity, and will scarcely pass current with the lower classes.

The tendency of Bank-paper to increase the price of provisions and other articles is well exemplified by our author.

‘Let us trace carefully,’ he says, ‘the steps by which an increase of paper serves to *lift up* the price of articles. Let us suppose, for example, an increased number of Bank of England notes to be issued. In such case the traders in the metropolis discover that there is a more than usual facility of obtaining notes at the Bank by giving bills for them, and that they may, therefore, rely on finding easy means of performing any pecuniary engagements into which they may enter. Every trader is encouraged by the knowledge of this facility of borrowing, a little to enlarge his speculations; he is rendered, by the plenty of money, somewhat more ready to buy, and rather less eager to sell; he either trusts that there will be a particular profit on the article which is the object of his speculation, or else he judges, that, by extending his general purchases, he shall at least have his share of the ordinary profit of commercial business, a profit which he considers to be proportioned to the quantity of it. The opinion of an increased facility of effecting payments causes other traders to become greater buyers for the same reason, and at the same time. Thus an inclination to buy is created in all quarters, and an indisposition to sell. Now, since the cost of articles depends on the issue of that general conflict between the buyers and sellers, which was spoken of, it follows, that any circumstance which serves to communicate a greater degree of eagerness to the mind of the one party than to that of the other, will have an influence on price. It is not necessary to suppose either a monopoly, or a combination, or the least unfairness, to exist, or even large and improper speculations. The increase in the eagerness of

each buyer may be trifling. The zeal to buy, being generally diffused, may, nevertheless, have a sensible operation on price.

‘That, on the other hand, a reduction of the quantity of paper causes a fall in the price of goods, is scarcely necessary to be proved. It may be useful, however, in some degree, to illustrate this point by facts. I understand, that at the time of the great failure of paper credit in 1795, the price of corn fell, in a few places, no less than twenty or thirty per cent. The fall arose from the necessity of selling corn under which some farmers were placed, in order to carry on their payments. Much of the circulating medium being withdrawn, the demand for it was in those places far greater than the supply; and the few persons, therefore, who were in possession of cash, or of what would pass as cash, having command of the market, obliged the farmers to sell at a price thus greatly reduced. It was a new and sudden scarcity of cash, not any new plenty of corn, which caused the price of corn to drop.’ P. 195.

Hence, if there be no bounds prescribed to the issue of paper, the nominal value of the articles of life may be increased without limitation, and the value of gold coin be infinitely diminished. Now the author proves that the paper of the banks, both of country and town, cannot be regulated according to any exact proportions to the Bank of England notes; and hence he thinks it necessary that the Bank should impose its own limits on the quantity of its paper. In this opinion we co-incide entirely with our author, and doubt not that the Bank is itself sensible, that, by issuing notes without limitation, a depreciation must necessarily take place in their value. But in this, as well as through the whole of the work, the interest of the Bank seems to be kept chiefly in view, and not the grand question on the nature and effects of paper-credit, its advantages and abuses, and the proper remedies of the latter.

This question, perhaps from its simplicity, eludes the researches of the mere trader and dealer in money. The advantages of paper are obvious—the facility of representing by it any quantity of cash, and thus paying at a great distance large sums, which must otherwise be attended with great risk and trouble in the conveyance. The disadvantages are, the greater liability to loss and destruction, and the temptation to fraud. The abuses are, the fraudulent issue of paper without effects to make good the payment when demanded. In every country there must be either coin or a substitute for coin, to answer the occasions of daily intercourse. To coin is the prerogative of the sovereign, and with the greatest reason it is attributed to him. By a strange co-incidence of circumstances, the subject who would be hanged for coining a guinea is allowed to exercise the art of coining to an infinitely greater extent in another way, and by his own *fiat*, by the signature of his pen, can give currency to a piece of paper to be valued at a hundred guineas; he is limited by no restraints

but his own discretion; and his profits increase with the quantity and value of the paper he can throw into general circulation. Thus a sovereign who was content with a small profit on his coin, and guarded it by the severest laws, after having on a sudden allowed this new power of coining, transferred the gain of many millions of pounds annually to his subjects, while the value of his own coin became necessarily depreciated. Not only has this been done, but no precautions have been taken that persons having this great advantage of coining an equivalent for money should give any security to the public that it might not be injured. A future age will perhaps rank among the extraordinary events of the eighteenth century, that a government oftentimes pressed for money, and increasing its debt at a prodigious rate, should thus relinquish what, in preceding ages, was deemed its peculiar privilege, should surrender a very ample revenue, and by this very surrender increase the rate of interest at which it was under the necessity of borrowing money. These things will strike the future historian with astonishment; but when it is added, that, on an embarrassment being experienced by the persons in possession of such powers, government itself ran to their release, and freed them for a considerable time from the great bond by which they were bound to pay the sum specified in their notes: this must appear to be such an act of munificence on the part of the sovereign, as must imply some extraordinary desert in those who are so highly favoured.

This unnatural state of paper-credit leads necessarily to many speculations. Our author sees clearly the extent of the power allowed by the sovereign, and also the necessity of a limitation to it; but this limitation is not marked out, because he has not sufficiently considered the real boundaries of paper-credit. The true limitation is the payment of cash on demand, or at the time specified in the note. If, from circumstances, this money cannot be paid, a stoppage of payment and future issues should take place, to be followed or not by bankruptcy, according to the nature of the case. But some have thought—and in this we coincide with them—that the interest of the public is not even thus sufficiently considered, and that further security is required from all who issue notes to be circulated in lieu of money. The value of the notes in circulation, according to this opinion, should be limited by landed securities, vested in proper hands by the proprietors of every bank. Thus the public could not be injured by the possession of their circulating notes, unless the bankers had acted fraudulently; which would consequently deprive them of the benefit of the bankrupt-act, and might be made to subject them, if necessary, to still higher penalties. Paper-credit and the metals would thus, each of them, have their advantage. The former would not, and it ought not, to encourage a general disuse of coin; and, under the true bond of landed security, would be justly entitled to the future confidence of the nation.

ART. XVI.—*The Anti-Jargonist, or a short Introduction to the Hindoostanee Language (vulgarly, but erroneously, called the Moors). By the Author of the Hindoostanee Dictionary. 8vo. 16 Rupees. Boards. Calcutta.*

IN this work, which is partly an abridgement of his Oriental Linguist, Mr. Gilchrist, with his accustomed ingenuity and skill, has compressed into a small volume the rudiments of the grand colloquial dialect of Hindustan, a copious and accurate vocabulary, a list of technical and military terms, several familiar dialogues, translations of tales and poems, with an account of the Indian horal diagram, illustrated by a well-engraved copper-plate—in short, as much as appears necessary in order to acquire a competent knowledge of the tongue, and more than any person could have expected in so small a compass. One very laudable object of Mr. Gilchrist, in the publication of this work, was to prevent the diffusion of a barbarous and corrupt dialect, which some preceding grammars and vocabularies have taught, although the authors have acknowledged it, at the same time, to be the jargon of the lowest and most illiterate classes. From this circumstance Mr. Gilchrist has adopted the expressive title of *Anti-Jargonist*; and those who learn by means of this gentleman's instructions may be assured that they acquire the language of Hindustan as spoken by the more polished natives of that country, and such only as an English gentleman—whether of the military, civil, or mercantile department—should condescend to use.

Mr. Gilchrist has scattered throughout his Introduction some very curious and useful observations on the manners and customs of the Hindus and mussulman-inhabitants of our eastern settlements, which we strongly recommend to the attention of young men in the company's service, or others who may visit India.

The following Sonnet, by the late Nuwab *Asuf ood Doulu*, is extracted from the translations.

1.

' Are lucid drops in either eye,
Love's magic gems set there?
Or do they glisten, sink and die,
Mere twinkling spheres of air?

2.

' Each killing charm at once display,
Here, tyrant! strike thy dart:
Take full revenge—but near me stay,
'Tis worse than death to part.

3.

'Thy rival planet if we see
Through monthly changes run,
From waning where is beauty free,
Though radiant as the sun?

4.

'True, on thy cheeks youth blooming glows,
But oh, frail mortal! hear—
Yon virgin dew which decks the rose
Just shines—to disappear.

5.

'Yet Asuf, why thy boon deplore,
That chance alone can give?
Sure absence wounds his breast no more
Who, slighted, hates to live.' p. 279.

The very flattering report of the committee appointed to inquire into the progress of those who studied under Mr. Gilchrist in the New College of Calcutta, bears sufficient testimony to his abilities; but his various publications on the subject of the Hindustanee language and literature had, long before, placed him at the head of all competitors in that department.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS....POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. 17.—*Substance of the Speech delivered by Lord Grenville, in the House of Lords, Nov. 13, 1801, on the Motion for an Address, approving of the Convention with Russia.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cobbett and Morgan.

ONE of the great advantages of our constitution is this—that every subject relative to the nation, however determined in the senate by any particular mode of influence, is at least previously subjected to discussion, which, in cases of importance, is frequently rendered more public still by the voluntary and careful submission of the several orations delivered in the course of discussion to the nation at large through the medium of the press. On the question which gave rise

to this speech, a noble lord, who was accustomed to hear his sentiments re-echoed from every part of the house, found, by the want of his official capacity, an equal want of support and deference among his colleagues—he was left in a very small minority, and with the consolation only that he was admitted to be tolerably well acquainted with the laws of nations. A convention had been made with Russia on the much disputed case of the right of searching neutral ships; and in this convention, many points, on which great stress had been laid in this country, have been totally abandoned, and a new æra seems to be formed in the history of war. Whether this convention will be attended to, time only must discover; but it is evident that, if the principle be pursued, neutral powers will be less harassed than they have hitherto been by the conflicts of neighbouring nations; and by so much the horrors of the most pernicious appeal to the worst of the human passions will be diminished.

Flattering as this view of the subject may be to humanity, our author is of opinion that it may be materially injurious to our own country; that ‘our maritime law will be found to have been in all its parts essentially impaired, its principles shaken, its exercise embarrassed, and its clearest regulations made matter of eternal dissension and contest.’ Before we reach the proof of these positions, much extraneous matter is introduced: the administration which conducted the treaty is not indeed boldly attacked, but every argument is couched under the terms of advice, and guarded by a charge against obstructing the wheels of the system heretofore formed. It is insinuated that ‘a more natural, a more respectful, conduct on the part of government’ might have been adopted; namely, to have stated certain circumstances relative to the treaty openly to parliament, and to have postponed ‘the examination of the measure until it could be presented in that more perfect form in which it is intended finally to stand.’ The reply easy to be made on such an occasion might have occurred to the speaker—Is there any reason to believe, from your lordship’s conduct in power, that you would have acted in a different manner?

On comparing the hostile conventions of 1780 and 1800, we are accused of standing ‘in the face of Europe, no longer as resisting, but as acceding to, the treaties of armed neutrality.’ To prove this, the five propositions or principles of maritime law which had been laid down in the last session of parliament are re-introduced; and as these principles were resisted by the Baltic powers, the author shows in what manner we have acceded to their terms. There cannot be a doubt that these principles have been infringed upon by the convention; but it may reasonably be doubted whether such abstract principles were to be made the grounds of action of political men, and at a time when the great charge against the French revolution and French philosophism was the introduction of abstract principles as a basis of government. The dictates of professors, which may be very proper in schools, seem occasionally unadapted to the character of those who are practically entrusted with the reins of government.

The only point in which there appears to be much strength in the opposition to the convention is the article on contraband of war; for, from the enumeration of the articles which constitute this contraband, naval stores seem to be excluded. ‘We have confessed that naval

stores ought not to be considered as contraband of war, and that we ourselves no longer acknowledge them as such. We have expressed this avowal in the very words originally selected for the purpose of making it universal, and we have inserted it in our treaty with those very powers who had confederated for no other object than to enforce our observance of it.' On the right of search some just observations are made; but the speech labours under its own weight:—it is of very great length; and the points which are obvious to any one, on comparing the treaties of 1780, 1800, and 1801, are not enlarged upon with any force of eloquence, nor is there any additional matter introduced, either to entertain or to convince.

ART. 18.—*Serious Reflections on Paper Money in general, particularly on the alarming Inundation of Forged Bank Notes. With Hints for remedying an Evil threatening Destruction to the internal Trade of the Kingdom. In which are included Observations on the Inquiry concerning the Paper Credit of Great Britain, by H. Thornton, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Thurgood. 1802.*

The fatal blow which has of late been struck at the credit of the Bank of England has filled every thinking mind with solicitude. The number of persons who have in consequence expiated with their lives the crime of forgery renders it doubtful whether the advantages derived by the emission of paper-money are not purchased at too great a rate, when they afford so strong a temptation to guilt, and are accompanied with the destruction of so many of our fellow-creatures. It seems indeed as if the punishment of that horrible mode of warfare countenanced by high authority was now brought home to ourselves, and that the nation which could justify the use of forgery against an enemy is made to experience the horror of such a device, by the same weapons being turned against its own bosom.

In this publication a judicious account is given of the banks of various nations, respecting all which it may be said that they were beneficial as long as they were merely employed for the benefit of trade, and with mercantile views alone; but it is extraordinary that, sooner or later, most of the larger banks were diverted from their original purpose, and converted into instruments of government; from which moment of connexion, their decline may be dated, and their ruin became inevitable. The banks of Venice, Amsterdam, Scotland, England—Law's Bank, or Mississippi bubble—the corresponding English South-Sea bubble—are brought in review before the reader, in order to impress on his mind the dangerous consequences of the attempt to 'convert mere shadow into solid substance—to condense opinion into a mountain of gold.'

'Paper, therefore, whether it bears the effigies of royalty or republicanism, unless it convey to the idea not the semblance merely, but the reality of so much money, is liable to fall into entire discredit, and of course at last into disuse. This was the case of the paper-dollars in America, though issued by a government whose struggles for independence ultimately proved successful: and this has been the more recent case in the assignats and mandats of the French republic, which professed to rest on what might have appeared to a superficial reasoner

sufficiently solid ground, viz. on the credit and security of the national domains. No national domains whatsoever—no territorial property, however extensive, can give permanency to the credit of national paper. Whatever may be its form or fabrication, however beautiful it may seem to the eye of him who holds a paper-dollar or assignat in his hand, he may confidently say, agreeably to the idea of Hamlet, when contemplating Yorick's skull, "To this must you come at last." p. 36.

That these are serious truths, no one can deny. Paper-money is of great service to mankind when it is easily convertible into the reality it represents; but when it is at the option of the person who fabricates it to give the reality or, only another semblance, in return for what has been offered, it baffles every conjecture to predict with a moral certainty the event. That a company, having such a power, should always have the will to be perfectly honest, is what neither history nor a common acquaintance with the heart of man will justify us in asserting; and so precarious are the actions of human life, that, allowing the individuals of such a company to possess the highest degree of honour and integrity, still the power may, after an emission of a great quantity of paper, be wanting to realise their wishes of restoring to its possessors its value in money. Even in this kingdom the consequences of the bankruptcy of a commercial company might not have been so injurious as a suspension of the law in their favour. To sanction a breach of principle for the benefit of individuals is dangerous; and necessity is so common a plea in the hands of power, that it should be always listened to with hesitation. As, however, the blow has been struck, it remains only to bear the pain with fortitude:—at the same time, the hints here thrown out to the Bank directors, for the prevention of forgeries, deserve their most serious attention.

ART. 19.—*The Income-Tax scrutinised, and some Amendments proposed to render it more agreeable to the British Constitution.* By John Gray, LL.D. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1802.

The title-page of this pamphlet may be very injurious to a work written with good motives and great political sagacity. Amendments (provided any minister should even be bold enough to recur to it) to the odious and detestable tax introduced by the late chancellor of the exchequer imply that the ground-work was not amiss: but the nation has sufficiently expressed its indignation at the whole scheme; and there is scarcely an individual existing who does not hope that such an inquisitorial system is for ever consigned to oblivion. Let us read the title, then, according to the contents of the work, and we may read it with pleasure and improvement—An income tax proposed which is agreeable to the principles of the British constitution. Is it possible that such an income tax can be proposed? our readers will exclaim.—Yes; it is not only possible, but this very tax, under the author's regulations, might be the mean of rendering all things cheaper; and the host of tax-gatherers who now annoy the repose of every house-keeper might be driven, as the locusts of old, by a violent west wind, into the Red Sea.

To remove the fears of our readers, we will state first what persons

are to be exempted from the payment of this new income-tax. — Artists, physicians, retail shopkeepers, lawyers, most manufacturers and merchants, the clergy, schoolmasters, the army, and the navy. Who then will be left to pay the tax? Those only whose income is derived in such a manner, that it is both a private and a national income; who, in short, do not detract from the income of another person to gain their livelihood: for an income-tax of this description ought to be drawn 'from real national income, and not from imaginary national incomes; and a possessor of real income who should withhold his just portion of supply for the defence of the state would act as dishonourably as a military man who, in a day of battle, should contend for the privilege of standing in the hindmost rank.'

The justice of this remark will be evident, on considering the effect of the late mode of taxation. Ten per cent. was demanded of a tradesman; who consequently raised the price of his articles, and, in doing so, more than covered his tax; for he had not only to pay the tax, but to pay a higher price for every commodity, as his neighbours, under the same influence, conducted themselves exactly in the same manner. Who then were the real sufferers? Those persons who could not in return raise the price of any commodities, as they had none to sell. Besides, if the artist gain a sum for his goods, he derives it from another, who has consequently so much the less—the former having added an imaginary value to articles which were procured from other persons—and the nation, as long as the picture (if the artist be a painter) remains in the country, is not at all enriched by any number of sales in which it may be exposed and sold. There is a transfer only from A to B, and the national income is unaltered.

It is not so with corn, with hay, with sea-fish, with coals, and with the minerals at large; these are annually produced and annually consumed; these are the real national income. The incomes from agriculture the author states at 112 millions, and—

‘ The first primary distribution of the national income		} £.
from agriculture is to the landlord for leave to		
cultivate the soil, one fourth, or		28,000,000
To the clergy one twentieth, or		5,600,000
To the poor one fortieth, or		2,800,000
Thrown into the ground as seed		10,000,000
Remains for the producers		65,600,000
		<hr/>
		£. 112,000,000.
		P. 16

An example will best explain the circulation of this income.

‘ Suppose a wealthy land-proprietor receives annually from his tenants a rent of 10,000*l.* and lives nearly up to that rent, making a reserve of only one tenth of it, some of the chief articles of his expenditure may be presumed to be as follows, namely, to government, on a land tax of 4*s.* in the pound, 2000*l.* for the maintenance and the education of his children, 1000*l.* for housekeeping, 2000*l.* for wages to servants, 500*l.* for horses and stables, 500*l.* for tradesmen, including coach-maker, upholsterer, carpenters, masons, smiths, &c. 2000*l.* and

the rest in charities, journeys, and to painters, statuarys, gilders, &c. Thus in the course of 12 months, this wealthy landlord has expended 9000*l.* which may justly be stated as national income, as it is a new creation, that did not exist the year before; but none of the articles of distribution of that rent before mentioned can be stated a second time, as a new part, or a separate part of national income; for were there to be twenty subsequent distributions previous to the total consumption, they would only be a continuation of the first agency, and no new agent. For example, the money the landlord has paid to the coachmaker, upholsterer, painter, and gilder, enables them to employ carpenters, shoemakers, taylor, bakers, brewers, &c. Do the servants receive 500*l.*? they with that money buy shoes, stockings, and other necessaries, and at the end of 12 months are ready for another 500*l.* to be expended in the same manner, which the farmer is prepared to pay to the landlord.' P. 16.

The income from foreign trade is estimated at fourteen millions, which is probably much too high; and we wish our readers to pay attention to this circumstance, that they may not be led astray by the vulgar error of the immense importance of our trade, and the dependence of the nation upon it.

* One of the great sources of the political evils, and I may even add of the moral evils, that have afflicted the world for more than one hundred years, is the misreckoning of statesmen in regard to the comparative importance of the income from agriculture and the income from foreign commerce. What a mass of erroneous opinions on this subject might be collected, not only from the writings of men of eminence, but from speeches of legislators of the first note, which have given rise to most impolitic and oppressive laws, to bloody civil dissensions, and to foreign wars; and have even directly lessened that national income, which they wished to have augmented. How much good would result, not only to Great Britain, but to other nations, were their rulers to give to each of those sources of national income its proper estimation. Mutual good-will among nations would then succeed to envious jealousy. Each would perceive the practicability of augmenting its own prosperity without detracting from that of its neighbour, and in their mutual dealings with each other they would almost disdain to calculate, whether the balance were in their favour or not. A nation perceiving that it could turn an agricultural income of 112 millions into an income of 114 millions, or 140 millions, would not be very anxious were it to purchase conveniences from abroad with an annual loss of 100,000*l.* or 200,000*l.* A great landlord, whose lands yielded him 50,000*l.* a year, would not be forward to enter into a bloody litigation for farthings.' P. 21.

The income from fisheries is stated at four millions; and, in consequence of having given true ideas of national income, our patriotic author suggests real political improvements.

- * I. An attention to render the territorial income more productive.
- * II. To render the fisheries more productive.
- * III. To render money less productive.

' IV. To alter wholly the system of artificial money.
' V. To establish an unerring rule for connecting for ever in a just proportion the public supply with the territorial or national income.' p. 26.

On each of these articles very important reflexions are made; but the use and abuse of paper-money deserve at this moment the most serious attention of the legislature; and we heartily join in the recommendation to imitate, with few exceptions, ' the law of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, by enacting,

' That every private person, who shall issue bills of credit to pass as money without the fullest real security for such bills, shall be considered and punished as a forger.——Let us now examine the consequences of this law. It would give an invitation to all the land proprietors of Great Britain and Ireland to supersede the 500 country banks, which have now filled the united kingdoms with notes of credit upon unknown and uncertain security. The present notes of credit would then be cried down as the clipt money formerly was, and a new coinage would appear of equal value, as a medium of circulation, with gold and silver, as supported by the good faith of the possessors of the territory. To those who now issue notes of credit, and could not give real security for such notes, six months might be allowed for calling in their notes, after which time it should be penal to offer them in circulation. This would, no doubt, make a considerable diminution in the revenue of many persons; but those persons would have no more reason to complain on that account, than he who had been feeding his horse and cow in another man's field would have reason to complain when the horse and cow were turned out.' p. 53.

We could with the greatest pleasure transcribe much more of this very important pamphlet; the great aim of which is to draw us out of the present labyrinth of finance, into which we made the first step in the reign of Charles II, and in which we have been at last completely bewildered by the thoughtlessness and precipitancy of the late minister. Two interests are spoken of in every place—the landed, and the moneyed; and, as the power of legislation has hitherto resided in the landed interest, from the sordid view of exempting itself from the burden of taxation, and the honourable defence of the country, it has plunged deep into a system which has at length increased its burdens, and rendered the proprietors of land the dupes of a few men with great capitals at their command. If this pamphlet should, as it promises to do, bring the members of the legislature to a more accurate investigation of the subject, the author may congratulate himself on having rendered a most important service to his country.

ART. 20.—*Thoughts on the internal Situation of Great Britain, in the Month of May, 1802. By a Magistrate. 8vo. 1s. No Publisher's Name.*

This magistrate views the situation of the country with the eyes of a true statesman—equally averse to those principles which lead
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to anarchy and confusion, and to those which, under the pretence of resisting innovation, suffer every degree of violence and injury to be offered to the constitution.

‘ Because the idea of civil liberty has, by a neighbouring people, been misconceived, perverted, and abused ; because the term has been used as the incentive to murder and oppression ; it does not follow, as a necessary conclusion, that the one should be smothered in the mind, or the other faulted on the lips, of an Englishman.’
P. 10.

Hence, as he perceives that much delusion has been practised on the ignorant by the arts of designing men on both sides of the question, and convinced that no man can ‘ unlearn a truism once engraven on his memory,’ he apprehends it unwise ‘ to consider the people as not having an interest in political doctrines, or as incurring guilt in their contemplation.’ On these grounds he wishes the people to be instructed practically, and a reformation of parliament to be entered upon with a view to correct those abuses and irregularities which time has introduced into the representative system. Taxes, and tithes, and poor-laws, receive some animadversions, which are all nevertheless conceived in the spirit of candour and moderation.

ART. 21.—*On the probable Effects of the Peace, with respect to the Commercial Interests of Great Britain : being a brief Examination of some prevalent Opinions.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

The aim of the author is to show, by an examination of the commercial situation of France, whether or not the fears entertained by some persons of an injury to our commerce from that country rest on any solid foundation? He is of opinion—and in this we cordially unite with him—that ‘ a revenue so embarrassed, a trade so crippled, a government so precarious, as that of France,’ must for a long time preclude any very great exertions ; and we may add, that if its exertions could be increased tenfold, so far from injuring, they would be really beneficial to ourselves. If France were to make more brandy, wine, lace, oil, silks—in all of which she excels—there would still be a sufficient demand for so many articles of trade in the world? There are some things, indeed, in which we should lament to see our inferiority ; and we were glad to observe that the printing-trade is recommended in this pamphlet to the notice of government ; since, by some of the late very injudicious taxes on paper, the whole of Europe and America is still likely to be entirely supplied with English books from France, instead of from England. To those croakers and alarmists who prognosticate that the blessings of the present peace will prove a curse, we recommend this pamphlet as a perfect cure for their hallucination.

ART. 22.—*An Address to the independent Freeholders of the County of Suffolk, on the approaching Election.* By a Suffolk Freeholder. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1802.

The Suffolk freeholder is not content with the present bars to the door of the house of commons. He would exclude the sons of peers, and all directly or indirectly connected with government. He re-

commends it to corporations to choose their representatives from their own neighbourhood; though, from an example or two that has lately occurred in his vicinity, we apprehend he would now recommend it to them to look a little farther; and some just observations are made on what is called a disturbance of the peace of the county—but which really implies nothing more than a disturbance of the peace of two or three families, who conceive that the exercise of the right of a freeholder is an infringement of their own right to nominate for the shire in which they live—a right which has no existence in, and is generally in direct opposition to, the spirit of the constitution. Thus, what can be more disgraceful to a county than to hear that it is so mean and degraded as to receive its members from the appointment of one or two resident peers—peers, whose duty it is sedulously to abstain from interfering in any election. Protesting against these limitations, which would deprive us of the sons of peers, and many valuable officers in the navy and army, we should be happy to see our author's sentiments on the prevention of corruption and bribery, on increasing the number of electors, and on shortening the duration of parliaments adopted—none of which however, we are afraid, are at all likely to be put into practice.

RELIGION.

ART. 23.—*Harmonia Apostolica; or the mutual Agreement of St. Paul and St. James, comprising a complete View of Christian Justification, and of the Deficiency of former Commentaries. Translated from the Latin of Bishop Bull, by the Reverend Thomas Wilkinson, M. A. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1801.*

'At present, attacks pour upon our church from every side, and traitors are within our walls. The time demands vigilance and exertion. Truth will prevail, and heresy be abashed, but only by the detection of the one, and the diffusion of the other. Neither can we expect the Almighty miraculously to preserve for us a church, which we do not think it worth our while to contend for, or support.' P. 300.

So says our author; and he might have expressed himself in this and other places with less bitterness. We could wish that the term Calvinistic—a very indefinite one—had never been used in a dispute, for the adjustment of which the translation of a very important part of bishop Bull's writings has been with the best intentions presented to the public. St. Paul and St. James can easily be reconciled by those who without prejudice read their epistles, and attend to their interpretation with the same temper that the two apostles would have shown towards each other, if they had met to adjust their supposed differences of opinion. There is no necessity, moreover, of adverting to certain periods of our history, in which religious opinions, maintained by political parties, created divisions in the state, of a very horrid nature and tendency; the disputes at present subsisting in the church having no reference to those parties; and persons of high respectability, both for talents, character, and rank, being found on both sides of the question. To these persons it would be the utmost degree of presumption in us to recommend a translation of

works with which they are so well acquainted in the original; but to many teachers out of the church—and we may say, to some ministers in the church itself, not very conversant with Latin authors—we may add, that a diligent perusal of this work, with or without the comments of the translator, will lead them to rectify many of the prejudices with which they are sometimes known to fill the minds of their hearers, on the subject of imputed righteousness and justification.

ART. 24.—*The Instability of Worldly Power, and the Insufficiency of Human Means: or, Divine Providence our only Shield.—A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of the Holy Trinity, Minorics, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802: being the Day appointed by Proclamation for a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for putting an End to the late bloody, extended, and expensive War, in which we were engaged. Published at the Request of the Parishioners, by Thomas Thirlwall. M. A. &c. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.*

In the vision of Ezekiel, on the restoration of dry bones to the human form, the writer finds a comparison between the late and the present state of this country, on which he dilates in the usual manner.

‘The ark of our constitution remains untouched; the throne and the altar are preserved sacred and inviolate; the charter of our civil and religious liberties is unfringed; our lives, our property, and independance, are guarded and protected. We each sit under our vines and fig-trees, and enjoy the fruits of our labours. The law dispenses justice in equal measure to all. Each individual enjoys the privilege of worshipping his Maker and Redeemer in the way he thinks most acceptable. Our empire is consolidated, strengthened, and extended. Our armies have returned home crowned with victory; and fame resounds their gallant achievements. Our fleets have never, in the proudest æra of our naval history, risen to so high a pitch of renown. God hath blessed us with the return of abundance. “Our garners are full and plenteous with all manner of store, and there is no complaining in our streets.” In allusion to the prophet’s vision; “our bones are come together, bone to his bone: our sinews and flesh are come upon us, and the skin hath covered us, and at last the breath also is come unto us; and we stand upon our feet an exceeding great army.” P. 16.

ART. 25.—*A plain and practical Exposition of the Ten Commandments. By the Reverend S. Glasse, D. D. &c. 12mo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1801.*

This is a well-meant attempt to explain the Ten Commandments; but our praises, we confess, must be bestowed rather on the design than the execution. There is a want of luminous order and consecutive arrangement; whence those whose capacities have not been much enlarged by education or experience will scarcely be able to follow the author satisfactorily. Thus, in the first discourse on the first commandment, in which the unity of God is explicitly declared, on purpose that the Israelites might never be seduced into the belief of that

polytheism which was the disgrace of neighbouring nations, the preacher is by no means sufficiently careful to explain the nature of the unity of the godhead in the commencement, or to point out afterwards the distinction between the trinity of Christian and the plurality of heathen worship. On the contrary, we find 'God the Holy Ghost (the third person in the Blessed Trinity)' introduced before there is mention made of the distinction of persons in the godhead; and it is asserted, that we are taught by the text to acknowledge and obey 'the great Almighty and adorable Being, existing in three divine persons, co-equally and co-essentially God,' without showing the connexion between this Almighty Being and the God spoken of in the text. Such a discourse is rather calculated to excite than to remove doubts in the mind of the Trinitarian.—The sermon 'on taking the name of God in vain' is written in a better style, and conveys more practical precepts; but of this, and indeed of all the rest, we may make the following remark—that, as they are evidently intended for circulation among the middling classes, sufficient regard is not paid to their capacities, which require that instruction should be delivered in the plainest manner, in order to become intelligible.

ART. 26.—*Six Lectures on the Church-Catechism: intended for public or private Instruction; more particularly appropriated to the Sundays in Lent. By the Reverend Samuel Glasse, D. D. &c. The Third Edition. 12mo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1801.*

In this work 'a style of familiarity is attempted, without descending so low as to degrade the character of instructor.' If such have been the attempt, it has unfortunately proved abortive; or, from the fear of degrading the office of instructor, the writer has not descended low enough to be intelligible to young persons. We recommend him to descend so far as to ask one of the catechumens in his parish, and of superior capacity, to read over these lectures in his hearing, and he will then perceive how very little they understand of the learned doctor's communications.

ART. 27.—*A summary View of the Nature and Tendency of Sunday-Evening Lectures, in the Parish Churches of populous, or large manufacturing Cities and Towns; or, a serious and candid Appeal to the Members of our established Church; with an Account of some of the Causes which have hitherto prevented their Establishment, and Suggestions for removing those Causes in future. To which is added, Bishop Kenn's Evening Hymn, as sung at the Sunday-Evening Lectures, Second Edition. 8vo. 6d. Crosby. 1802.*

A recommendation of Sunday-evening lectures, without a sufficient attention to their disadvantages.—In a place where a Sunday-evening lecture is given by the methodists, or other sects, there should assuredly be one given in the church; but it may well be questioned, whether the necessity for them does not arise from something wrong in our manners? In country towns, the laudable custom is not yet worn out of dining early on the Sunday, that all the family may go to church in the afternoon as well as the morning; as the evening is spent at home in reading and catechising the children

Where a family supports religious exercises at home on the Sunday evening—as we know many yet do—the parties in the parlour and the kitchen are the happiest; and there is no need of going to church to a Sunday-evening lecture, which is not always free from danger to some of the congregation.

ART. 28.—*The Evidence and Design of Christianity considered, in a Letter to a Gentleman.* 12mo. 1s. Rivingtons, 1801.

This letter is said to have been written to a friend who had some doubts on Christianity; and, to remove them, very sound and good arguments are urged in an affectionate manner. One paragraph we particularly recommend to those who are accustomed to hear the truths of our religion derided, and, without examination, are apt to be led away by the sarcastic remarks of infidelity.

‘When I heard objections against Christianity, I heard many smart things said. But when I considered who the objectors were, I could not but reflect thus:—These persons cannot be supposed to be very profound in moral or theological science. Light, easy, self-confident young men. They cannot be supposed to have any predilection for what relates to a spiritual world, or indeed for any thing but what concerns the interests or enjoyments of the present life. When I consider how they live, I must conclude, that whoever may be wrong, they cannot be right. They have no moral end in view.’
P. 22.

The whole of this little work is composed in a plain and easy style: it may be usefully perused in serious families, and put into the hands of those who live in circles where there is danger from dissipation.

ART. 29.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of New Windsor, Berks, on Sunday, the 15th of February, 1801. By the Rev. T. Freeman, L.L.B. &c. Published at the Request of a Part of the Congregation.* 4to. 1s. No Publisher’s Name.

The discourse is founded on three propositions:—

- ‘1st. That God is the disposer of all events.
- ‘2dly. That nothing is more pleasing to God than zeal, when directed by true piety.
- ‘3dly. That it is as much the indispensable duty of a king, to provide for the security of his kingdom, and the happiness of his subjects; by enforcing, both by precept and example, a due obedience and conformity to the laws of God; as it is the bounden duty of the subject, to obey those laws; to fear God; and to honour the king.’ P. 4.

The latter head gives occasion for a panegyric on the present sovereign, which, however well deserved, we may almost term presumptuous when obtruded from the pulpit—the preacher’s audience not being collected to attend to his eloquence on any other subjects than those pointed out by the Gospel.

ART. 30.—*A Call for Union among the Members of the established Church; enforced by a brief Review of the injurious Tendency of Controversies and Contentions among real Christians.* 12mo. 3d. Matthews. 1802.

A sound, well-meant, judicious exhortation to Christian unity.—Differences in opinion are stated to arise from mental imperfections, from education, from a variety in our capacities, a variety in our temper, and a variety in our secular interests, which, as they cannot be removed, ought to excite Christian forbearance towards each other. Contend we may, and ought strenuously, for the truth, but the Scriptures are to be our guide in our exertions; and when the evil tempers of heathens enter into our discussions, we forget that we are disciples of a Lord and Master who came to bring peace into the world. Unity in sentiment is not attainable, but unity of affection may be; and this affection is much injured by various provocations pointed out in this work during the discussion of religious controversies. A publication of this kind is much wanted in the neighbourhood of Bristol; and we recommend it to all who have been engaged in it, trusting it may tend to allay the jealousies and animosities which that controversy has excited.

‘It will be well’ (we say with our author) ‘for ourselves, well for the interests of that church of which we are members, well for the honour of that religion of which we are the disciples, and pleasing to that God of love of whom we are the creatures and servants, if with a holy ambition we emulate the benevolence of St. Paul, who, disdaining to confine his charity within those narrow limits, which, in later times, have circumscribed that of the generality of Christians, extended his fervent benediction “to all them that love the Lord Jesus Christ in sincerity.”’ p. 16.

ART. 31.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Woburn, March 14th, 1802; the Sunday after the Interment of the late most noble Francis, Duke of Bedford.* By Edmund Cartwright, A. M. &c. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Highley.

After the usual reflexions on mortality, a due tribute of affection and respect is paid to the memory of the late duke of Bedford.

BLAGDON CONTROVERSY.

ART. 32.—*Animadversions on the Curate of Blagdon's three Publications, entitled The Controversy between Mrs. Hannah More and the Curate of Blagdon, &c. an Appeal to the Public, and an Address to Mrs. Hannah More; with some Allusions to his Cambrian Descent from “Gwyr Ap Glendour, Ap Cadwallader, Ap Styfnig,” as affirmed and set forth by himself, in the twenty-eighth Page of his Appeal to the Public.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

A very dull account of the controversy, in which the curate's birth, parentage, and education, are attempted to be held up to ridicule. To be a poor servitor at Oxford is not a disgrace to any man; the highest dignitary in the church at present was a serv-

tor; and we are indebted to the same rank of life for characters to whose merits the nation will for ever pay the warmest tribute of respect. The flippant nonsense on the supposed Welsh descent of the curate can appear as wit only in the eyes of the author. The public have been already acquainted with the facts from other pamphlets.

ART. 33.—*Illustrations of Falsehood, in a Reply to some Assertions contained in Mr. Spencer's late Publication. By the Rev. Thomas Drewitt, A. M. &c.* 8vo. 4d. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

This is an answer to the attack of Mr. Spencer on the present writer; who does not seem to have considered sufficiently that the public at large are little interested in the assertions which he refutes, and that they are swelled into too much importance by this second circulation from the press.

ART. 34.—*Elucidations of Character, occasioned by a Letter from the Rev. R. Lewis, published in the Rev. T. Bere's Address to Mrs. H. More; with some Remarks on a Pamphlet lately published, by Edward Spencer, of Wells. By the Rev. John Boak, Rector of Brockley.* 8vo. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

Several letters addressed to Mr. Lewis by the author, and which the former did not think proper to answer, are in this pamphlet brought before the public. Without entering into the merits of the controversy, we commend Mr. Lewis for his silence; for the press has groaned too long beneath the weight of this acrimonious dispute. The author has also thought Mr. Spencer's attack worthy of a reply.

ART. 35.—*An Alternative Epistle, addressed to Edward Spencer, Apothecary. By Lieut. Charles H. Pettinger. Second Edition.* 8vo. 4d. Hurst. 1802.

The lieutenant seems to be a good match for the doctor, whom he compares to a 'mountebank doctor and a jack-pudding, an insignificant apothecary,' and adorns with a variety of similar epithets. His work is asserted to be 'most execrable in design, most contemptible in execution, most unprincipled in its statement, and most blackguard in its language—so wicked, so absurd, so conceited, and so vulgar,' as to baffle ancient and modern times to produce its equal. Its paragraphs are to be divided into 'the ridiculous, the blackguard, the lying, the nasty, the indecent, the profane, and the Jacobinical.' In short, our author assures his opponent that the public voice is uniform in pronouncing his pamphlet 'to be the most blackguard production that ever issued from the press.'

Iliacos intra muros peccatur, et extra.

We hope this is the last pamphlet that will come into our hands on the *Blagdon Controversy*; for it is distressing to read the scurrilities that have passed on both sides concerning a question which ought now to be buried in oblivion. We recommend to all the parties, who pretend equally to venerate the Scriptures, to meditate on that exhortation which forbids the 'rendering railing for railing.'

NON-RESIDENCE OF THE CLERGY.

ART. 36.—*Thoughts on the Residence of the Clergy, and on the Provisions of the Statute of the twenty-first Year of Henry VIII. c. 13.* By John Sturges, LL. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

ART. 37.—*Observations on Dr. Sturges's Pamphlet respecting Non-Residence of the Clergy; in a Letter to Mr. Baron Maseres.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

It is a pleasure to see a controversy of importance in the hands of gentlemen and scholars. Whatever party the public may at first espouse, great allowance will unquestionably be made for a difference of opinion among their opponents; and where the principals are seen to act towards each other with mutual candour and forbearance, the benign influence of their respective dispositions will, it is to be hoped, diffuse itself over all who take a part in the controversy. Within the last two or three years, informations have been lodged against many clergymen for non-residence in their respective parishes; and the penalties assigned by an act of Henry VIII have been attempted to be levied. The number of these informations has been so considerable, that the legislature has thought proper to interfere, and, by a posterior act, has suspended the natural course of justice. During this suspension, it was intended that new regulations should have been formed, and the act of Henry VIII totally repealed, or modified in a manner less injurious to the interests of the clergy.

In this state of the question, Dr. Sturges, a very respectable dignitary of the church of Winchester, introduces his opinions on the residence of the clergy; and, from his clerical situation as well as his general character, the side which he espoused could not have fallen into better hands. To him also the act of Henry VIII seems to require some degree of modification; and the mode adopted to level the penalties under it appears derogatory to the respect due to the clergy and the interests of the church. He acknowledges, however, that too much occasion has been given for the complaint of non-residence, but maintains that such occasions ought not to make us turn a deaf ear to a variety of causes for non-residence, of which he produces specimens, and which, nevertheless, would not preserve a worthy incumbent from a *qui-tam* information. Of these, one is an augmentation of income derived from an inadequate preferment, by teaching as a schoolmaster, or as a private tutor either abroad or at home. As preferment is less obtained by selection than by chance, there may be cases in which the incumbent could be better employed in another parish than his own, while a curate may be more adapted to the care of the former. Ill health, bodily infirmity, and domestic concerns, may also each furnish reasons for non-residence. The state of the parsonage itself is, from a variety of circumstances, often so unfavourable, that residence in it is scarcely compatible with the situation of the incumbent.

Since the law, even in its present state, admits of many allowances for non-residence, there seems to be no sufficient reason why this allowance should not be extended to the cases above mentioned;—but

no private favoritism can turn the law from its direct course; the judge and jury are equally bound by their respective oaths; and the penalty must be levied, though the hardship of the case may be acknowledged by all parties. Hence the worthy author thinks that the civil judge is not the fittest person to determine upon these actions, which he would leave to our ecclesiastical superiors, the bishops. It is argued that they must necessarily be zealous for the true interests of the church; and that if they treated the clergy with paternal indulgence, they would still always modify such indulgence with a disposition to maintain order, and to exact the performance of duty.

Against the other provisions of the act of Henry VIII, which prohibit the clergy from acting as farmers or tradesmen, it is contended, with great justice, that the regulations are by no means adapted to the manners and customs of the times and the state of a married clergy. Of this no one can entertain a doubt, who considers the extent of this act, and with what rigor it may be enforced. On the whole, our author sums up his arguments in the following strong language.

‘That the residence of the clergy is in itself highly expedient and proper to be enforced, but that there are many cases in which this rule will admit of exceptions—that these cases should be specified by law as far as they can, but that many of them must depend on circumstances, which cannot be so specified, and are proper to be determined only by the discretion of some superior—that the bishop or ordinary is the superior, on whom such discretionary power would naturally devolve—That the statute of Henry VIII enforcing residence is a harsh law, severe in its penalties, unequal in its operation, and less applicable to the present times than to those in which it was enacted—That the other provisions of the same statute, against taking to farm and buying and selling, are carried to an unreasonable extent, would interfere (if put rigorously in force) with the common rights of clerical owners in the management of their ecclesiastical, as well as of their private property, and are ill-suited to many forms of property in the present times—That the whole statute has in a great measure become obsolete and lain long dormant, but that its revival at the present time appears to have produced already much inconvenience and hardship, and will produce still more, if its operation be continued—And, that it is therefore become a fit, and almost necessary, subject for the interposition of the legislature to repeal or to amend it.’ P. 71.

Against these positions an anonymous writer advances with arguments equally forcible; and when it is considered that he is the friend of Mr. Baron Maseres, and that the baron himself has professed the same opinion, the public, we are persuaded, will pay as much deference at least to this pamphlet as to that whose tenets it controverts. The evils of non-residence are here contrasted with the various motives for indulging it; and they are summed up in the strong and forcible language of bishop Horsley and the venerable Hooker. The variety of exemptions from the penalties of non-residence is next considered; and to the writer these exceptions seem ‘to bereave at least a sufficient number of parishes of resident incumbents.’ In

deed, in these exemptions are included some on which Dr. Sturges himself lays great stress. The travelling tutor is not thought, however, an object of indulgence, and in this we agree entirely with the writer, for the reason specified by him, 'that there are abundance of members of the universities, and other ecclesiastics, unattached to parochial benefices, who are willing and perfectly qualified to engage in this sort of occupation.'

It is urged also, that 'a parochial benefice is by no means an unconditional freehold. He who accepts it imposes on himself conscientious and legal duties—among others, the conscientious duty of residence, and legal subjection to the penalties, enacted against the breach of it. When St. Paul says that "they who wait at the altar should live of the sacrifice," he plainly implies at the same time, the converse of his proposition, that they who live of the sacrifice should wait at the altar. The duties and the emoluments are correlative. And though our forefathers, in their wise and salutary attachment to a church establishment, have "not entrusted that great fundamental interest of the whole, to the unsteady and precarious contribution of individuals," but have given the greatest possible stability and security to the provision of this establishment; yet have they not by any means released the ministers of the church from those original, eternal obligations, which form the fundamental considerations, for the appropriations of the revenues set apart for their use.

' Subject to these obligations were all parochial benefices accepted, and subject to these are they retained. When measures are taken to compel performance of them, complaint is groundless; and the obvious answer to it is that, which our great poet has represented as suggesting itself to the first man, in refutation of his querulousness against his Creator :

———' Too late

' They thus contest. Then should have been refused
Those terms whatever, when they were proposed.
Thou didst accept them. Wilt thou enjoy the good,
Then cavil the conditions?' p. 26.

Our author by no means wishes to enlarge the act of Henry VIII; but, in reply to the inadequacy of some benefices, suggests an excellent improvement, which it is to be hoped will be duly considered in the approaching session of parliament. Instead of giving half of the penalty to the crown, he proposes that that half may be appropriated to the improvement of smaller livings. As to the profession of the church being injured by the restraint of non-residence, our author is convinced that the high rewards in it are sufficient to prevent any injury of this kind, and that very few of the really deserving members of the profession are likely to be aggrieved in any respect by the enforcement of the act.

The author is sensible of the delicacy of meeting the improvement on the act as suggested by Dr. Sturges, and of opposing the increase of episcopal authority; but he contends, that in the best of men there is an *esprit de corps*; and, allowing that the bishop must be necessarily a very valuable minister, 'whose character is as unex-

ceptionable as Dr. Sturges,' yet he asserts—' I solemnly protest that I should not think the parochial residence of the clergy might with safety be made to depend on merely the effects of even his own voluntary active interference.' Several other good reasons are offered why the power of compelling residence should not be lodged in the prelate bench ; among which, one deserves peculiar consideration.

Quis custodiet ipsos custodes ? It is by no means absolutely impossible, that a bishop himself may be obnoxious to the charge of neglecting the duty of residence. And how then would he interpose to enforce the performance of it in another ? With what propriety could, for instance, a bishop of Llandaff (I refer to the known delinquency of this learned prelate—*clarâ et multâ virtute redempti*—with the respectful and anxious embarrassment of a child, compelled to remonstrate against the misconduct of a parent)—with what propriety could that prelate, possessing a bishopric in South Wales, a professorship of divinity in Cambridge, and a parochial benefice in Leicestershire, yet holding his residence on a lay estate in Westmoreland ; with what propriety, consistency, or decency, with what sincerity, or seriousness, I ask, could he undertake to censure, for neglect of the duty of which we speak, the beneficed clergy of Monmouthshire or Glamorganshire ? p. 51.

Our author, then, is by no means inclined to relax. He would have the act enforced with all its supposed rigors ; and to his opinion we confess we most incline. The number of actions seems to us merely to prove how great was the violation of an important duty on the part of the clergy ; and though the informer may have proceeded without any intention to benefit the church, the church, there cannot be a doubt, would be benefited by the continuance of such informations. Dr. Sturges properly complains of the traffic of livings, and that Garraway's coffee-house (as we well know) resounds with the advantages of a fine situation, a sporting country, little duty, and no fear of the bishop. It is, in reality, in consequence of such little attention to residence that livings are become mere objects of bargain and sale, that the out-goings and in-comings are alone considered, and that the value of the incumbent's life is calculated, and the next turn of a living a matter as marketable as a ton of hops or a bale of cotton. *Qui-tam* actions must always be an effectual bar to this shameful traffic ; for if every incumbent be compelled to residence, the father of every *ignoramus* designed for the church will think a little before he ventures his capital on a spot from which so small an interest may be eventually returned.

Against entrusting the bishops with the power of a judge and jury, the arguments seem to us irrefragable ; and to them we may add the danger of giving the bishop too great an interest in the election of a member for the county. While the clergy depend so much on him in one civil concern, they cannot do otherwise than return the favour conferred on themselves by consulting his lordship's wishes in another civil concern. These arguments will, we doubt not, have their effect in the ensuing parliament ; and we could wish that every member who gives a vote upon so important a subject would

carefully balance the positions advanced in these very valuable pamphlets.

ART. 38.—*Anguis in Herbâ! A Sketch of the true Character of the Church of England, and her Clergy: as a Caveat against the Misconstruction of artful and the Misconception of weak Men, on the Subject of a Bill about to be brought into Parliament, for the Revisal of certain Ecclesiastical Statutes concerning Non-Residence, &c. &c. &c. By the Rev. James Hook, M. A. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1802.*

A strong contrast to the pamphlets above reviewed—filled with trash, *et præterea nihil*, about Jacobinism and the French revolution. On reading this tract, it might be supposed that the question on the non-residence of the clergy had been loudly supported by the laity, and that the *qui-tam* informations had been the children of Jacobinism; whereas there is no reason to believe that the Jacobins ever gave themselves any trouble at all on the subject, and that the laity in general viewed the question with too much indifference.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 39.—*Some few Cases and Observations on the Treatment of Fistula in Ano, Hemorrhage, Mortification, the Venereal Disease, and Strictures of the Urethra. By John Andrée, M. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. G. and W. Nicol. 1799.*

These cases had unaccountably escaped us; which we regret the more, as in some of these points we have been obliged to find our own way without assistance. Fortunately, we have not greatly differed from our author. Fistula in ano may, he remarks, be often cured without the operation, by attending to the patient's health, and avoiding irritation, or using only a gentle compress. Indeed, the health should be particularly attended to; for they are often depositions from the mere efforts of nature; and on the discharge being stopped, the original disease returns.

In hæmorrhages from wounds, the artery, when tied, should always, in our author's opinion, be brought to the sight. In a violent internal hæmorrhage from the intestines, he succeeded by placing the patient in a washing-tub, and repeatedly pouring pails of cold water on the belly.

In mortification, attended with pain, Dr. Andrée thinks opium even a superior medicine to the bark. As an antisymphilitic, he conceives the nitrous acid not effectual; though it may relieve some obstinate Venereal symptoms where mercury has been long continued, and disagrees. He dissuades the application of mercurial ointment to chancres, and prefers dry lint. Some fixed pains, which remain after salivation, he remarks, are often rheumatic, and may be cured by the sarsa, a milk diet, and free air. In this observation most practitioners will agree with him.

Some cautions are added respecting the use of caustics; and Dr. Andrée advises that they be not employed till bougies have absolutely failed.

ART. 40.—*Appendix to a Publication, entitled new Inventions and Directions for ruptured Persons, &c. &c.; containing a familiar Account of the Nature of Ruptures, in both Sexes. By W. H. T. Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hurst. 1802.*

The author will not suffer his inventions to be forgotten. He again warmly recommends them, giving twelve ironical reasons why they should not be adopted. The chief part of the Appendix, however, consists of extracts from Mr. Pott's and M. Arnaud's treatises on ruptures.

ART. 41.—*Experiments with the Metallic Tractors in Rheumatic and Gouty Affections, Inflammations, and various Topical Diseases; as published by Surgeons Herboldt and Rafn, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Copenhagen; translated into German by Professor Tode, Physician to his Danish Majesty; thence into the English Language by Mr. Charles Kampfmüller: also Reports of about one hundred and fifty Cases, in England; demonstrating the Efficacy of the Metallic Practice, in a Variety of Complaints, both upon the Human Body, and on Horses, &c. by medical, and other respectable Characters. Edited by Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.*

This work contains many additional cases in support of the metallic tractors; and, among others, some instances of horses having been cured by them, to preclude all suspicion of the influence of imagination. Dr. Haygarth's attempts to lessen their credit are again warmly noticed. We think Mr. Perkins acted more politically when he with great eagerness informed the world that there was not the slightest collusion between him and his antagonist. This, we have been assured, was true; but we do not recollect it in his publications.

COW-POX.

ART. 42.—*Facts, and some Arguments, tending to shew that the public Decision may with Prudence be suspended respecting the Inoculation of the Cow-Pox. By Thomas Lee. 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1802.*

We have had occasion to adduce facts and arguments in opposition to a practice we still think was too hastily adopted and too warmly supported; though farther examination and more extensive experience has shown the foundation to be secure, and the superstructure solid. With respect to the 'facts' they may be easily discussed. The young woman had five or six pustules *between the fingers*, and the nature of *her* disease is sufficiently obvious. The young man had what 'was called the cow-pox,' but many years afterwards contracted the small-pox. His sister did the same; but he destroys the effect of his evidence by adding, that 'he never heard that the cow-pox would prevent the small-pox.' It is evident, therefore, he had *not* the true cow-pox, for nothing is better established than the general opinion of its being a security. He was evidently in a part of the country where it was uncommon. The whole pamphlet is written hastily and inconclusively, and shows the author to be unquestionably 'a truant son of the university' of Edinburgh.

ART. 43.—*Observations on the Utility of inoculating for the Variolæ Vaccinæ, or Cow-Pox. By Edward Gardner. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Carpenters. 1801.*

Some well-meant remarks on the subject of the cow-pox, in a popular view, with many of the popular errors, and praises a little too extravagant on the author of the plan and his 'numerous experiments.'—We could wish to banish 'spurious cow-pox' from the mind. We may as well say, that when the puncture inflames after inoculation for the small-pox without the supervention of fever, it is a 'spurious small-pox.' In fact, in neither instance does the disease take place.

EDUCATION.

ART. 44.—*Some Remarks relative to the present State of Education, in the Society of the People called Quakers. By George Harrison. 8vo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1802.*

The very respectable author of this work wishes to impress on the yearly meeting of the Quakers the necessity of attention to the education of their children. By this account it appears that several schools, 'formerly of the first reputation in the society, and abounding with scholars, have scarcely any thing remaining but the walls. In short, the present state of schools in the society is in a general view deplorable.' The minutes of the yearly book (very judiciously introduced by the writer) testify that at various times education has been considered of importance; and the evil of neglecting it seems now to have arisen to a height very alarming.

'One thing, however,' (says our author) 'I seem to have discovered, and to the society an important discovery it is, namely, that the deficiency of a general plan of education amongst us develops the source of those complaints, which are brought up from all quarters, concerning the poor and low state of the society in a religious sense. By the representations of many solid friends, in various parts of the nation, we seem, for want of an adequate system of education, to be leavening into the common mass; and all the efforts of the few well-qualified ministering friends amongst us appear unequal to the task of counteracting the progress of this declension; and yet a fair outside appearance will long survive the distinction, and a decent formality and tolerable conformity to rule will subsist, in the persons of many, after vital religion is gone.' p. 16.

The declension of Quakerism is evident. The attention which its members pay to dress and the incidents of fashionable life, must necessarily, after a course of years, destroy the sect altogether, unless there should be something solid left when its form and exterior parts are taken away. This pamphlet deserves the serious attention of the society.

ART. 45.—*Instructive Hints, in easy Lessons for Children. By E**** C*****. 8vo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1801.*

A little book, for little children.

ART. 46.—*Conjugata Latina; or, a Collection of the purest and most usual Latin Words, distinguished into Classes according to the Times of their Occurrence, and arranged according to their Derivations: with their Significations and Syllabic Quantities: comprising three thousand Words, chiefly selected from Terence, Caesar, Virgil, Horace, and Ovid. To which is subjoined, an Alphabetical Index of all the Words in the Conjugata. By Thomas Haigh, A. M. 8vo. 3s. Bound. Symonds. 1802.*

Mr. Haigh has manifested a considerable share of ingenuity in this collection; and the labour which he must have employed in it deserves the thanks of all teachers. Perhaps the author, from long familiarity with the method, may render it serviceable to his younger pupils; but we think, in general, it will be too difficult for boys who have not advanced pretty far in the common grammar. To scholars who have been three or four years at Latin, or to grown persons wishing to recover that tongue, we recommend it as a very useful performance. We have scarcely ever seen a more inelegant English style than Mr. Haigh has employed in his preface.

ART. 47.—*The Village Library; intended for the Use of Young Persons. By Miss Gunning. 18mo. 2s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1802.*

This volume contains eleven tales, which will assist in catching the imagination of children, and training their minds to a love of virtue.

POETRY.

ART. 48.—*The Island of Innocence; a Poetical Epistle to a Friend. By Peter Pindar, Esq. Part the First. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dean. 1802.*

This seems to have been the work of a former æra of the author's life, when—not yet subject to the calls of satire, and the daily supply it demands—Peter had more time to polish his lines, and mature his thoughts. There is, however, a modern passage in the usual strain, which contaminates a work that might otherwise be styled elegant—we mean where he concludes with ‘the brutes of Paternoster-Row.’

The subject of this work is an adventure which happened to the author in his voyage to Jamaica—the accidental meeting with an elegant woman and her husband in a small island in the Gulf of Mexico.

‘Persecuted by their parents for a love attachment, they forsook their native country’ (America) ‘to seek some distant asylum. On their voyage they were wrecked; but fortunately escaped with their lives, and preserved their property. Finding the little island on which they were thrown to be in possession of a few inhabitants of the most perfect simplicity of manners, and the most lively friendship, pleased also with the salubrity as well as the beauty and fertility of the spot, they adopted the resolution of passing their days in this remote corner of the globe; convinced that the most perfect happiness resides oftener in simplicity than splendor. Their opinion soon became realised: fond of the innocent natives, and equally beloved again, the delightful republic flourished under their auspices, and restored the golden age.’ P. I.

The introduction is a favourable specimen of the work.

‘ To thee, my friend, amid that peaceful isle
Where bounteous Nature blooms with sweetest smile ;
Where never Winter, on his northern blast,
Howls on the hill, and lays the valley waste ;
O’er a pale sun, the cloud of horror throws,
And buries Nature in his vast of snows ;
Ah, no ! where endless Summer, ever gay,
Opes a pure ether to the orb of day ;
That gilds the tree, and flower, and grassy blade,
And works his threads of gold in ev’ry glade ;
To thee, my friend, where shrubs of incense rise,
And pour their grateful fragrance to the skies ;
Where rills, in wanton mazes, wind away,
Diffusing health and plenty, as they play ;
Where the rich treasures of the pine reside,
And orange-branches bend with golden pride ;
Where from the boughs of odour, mingled notes
Of rapture warble from a thousand throats ;
And blest, from vale to vale the cooing dove
Wings with his mate, and teaches man to love ;
To thee, I yield the Muse’s artless line,
And envy all the blessings that are thine.’ P. I.

The thought which suggested his *friend’s* describing the luxuries of Europe to the simple inhabitants, and contrasting it with its dangers and depravity, is a happy one, and well conducted. The affectation of humanity, however, is too glaring ; and we must forget the means which put those animals, destined by divine command for the use of man, into his power. On the whole, we have been better pleased with this work than with some of the author’s later attempts : they remind us of a better æra, when we could reflect on Peter’s strains without the pain of injured modesty or the indignation of insulted religion.

ART. 49.—*Pleasures of Solitude. Second Edition. With other Poems. By P. L. Courtier. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Rivington. 1802.*

Mr. Courtier, whose early attempts in 1795 we noticed* and encouraged as the productions of a young poet, now offers to the public his ‘*Pleasures of Solitude*,’ corrected and enlarged, with additional miscellaneous verses.

His ‘*Pleasures of Solitude*’ cannot boast the mellow lustre of ‘*The Minstrel* ;’ yet through a fainter colouring we perceive some traces of that tenderness and piety which enchanted us in the amiable Beattie. We select a favourable specimen,

‘ How wretched they, who to this wretched state,
Our faith, and bliss, and being, all confine !
Who blindly lead us to the shafts of fate ;
Then, to that fate, our will, our hopes resign,
And quench in death the spark of life divine.

* See our XVth Vol. New Arr. p. 454.

By the last struggle with encumbering dust,
 Each fond regret, unmix'd with sad repine;
 By earthly friendship, and by heavenly trust;
 These mouldering frames shall greet the morning of the just!

' To me, enamoured of each pensive scene;
 To me, whom deepest solitudes delight;
 Who love, alike, day's closing ray serene,
 Or concave clear, with mildest lustre bright,
 Or the dread blackness of involving night;
 Not cheerless seems to me the passing-bell,
 Which speaks from earth a soul's eternal flight:
 Calm are the sounds in every breeze that dwell;
 And sweet, to fancy's ear, my own departed knell.

' Hail! ye blest shores of permanent delight,
 Sublimely raised above this world of woe;
 Whose tempered day fears not enshrouding night;
 Whose lenient skies no baleful changes know;
 Round whose fair paths the living waters flow;
 Where music wakens to celestial hands;
 And breezes rich with heavenly fragrance blow.' P. 46.

His smaller poems are not distinguished by spirited versification. They still discover low expressions and confused metaphors. 'Love has exhausted his fumes'—'Sweep PIERCING strings'—'Shade looks in saddest weeds'—and 'entrench within foldings,' form a few of the inaccuracies of language we have selected from a multitude which we cannot pause to enumerate. While, however, we thus condemn Mr. Courtier's frequent inattention to correctness, we shall present a pleasing example of the powers of his minor Muse.

' SENSIBILITY.

' Give me the kindling eye, from whence
 I learn within what tumults swell;
 Give me the lip's mute eloquence,
 Which more than tongue shall ever tell.

' Too coy, to breathe the softest vows;
 Too warm, to let her wishes die;
 Though modest, yet what love allows
 She gives, the look—perhaps the sigh.

' Then come, thou sympathising power,
 Dear Sensibility, descend!
 And still with youth's delicious hour
 Thy magic and thy sweetness blend.' P. 65.

This little volume is neatly printed, and decorated with a few engravings.

ART. 50.—*The Histrionade: or, Theatric Tribunal; a Poem, descriptive of the principal Performers at both Houses. In two Parts. By Marmaduke Myrtle, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kirby. 1802.*

The observations contained in this poem are able and pertinent,

and, according to our judgement, exhibit no striking instance of partiality. At the conclusion, Mr. Myrtle rouses himself into a swagger, and is silly enough to abuse the critics, in imitation of others who have much more need than he has to fear their censure. We wish to give a specimen of his talents, without personally supporting, however, the praise or blame bestowed on any performer. The following address to the actresses at large will serve our purpose; and it is, we think, a fair sample of the writer's poetical merit.

‘ Well-pleas’d, to female candidates I turn,
With purer flame whose tender bosoms burn;
Those tender bosoms I shall never vex,
Devoted to the service of the sex.
What! steal a humid pearl from Beauty’s eye?
Start from Love’s rosy lip th’ ambrosial sigh?
Or, with barbarian insolence, profane
Those snowy orbs, incapable of stain?
First, let young Israelites with pork be fed;
The bellman wear the laurel on his head;
The national arrears be paid by pence;
Dibdin write tragedy, or Dutton sense!
Yet tell me, fair ones! with indignant pride,
Why, sometimes do you jerk the cheek aside,
When a rough hero woos, of humbler race,
As if he’d squirt tobacco in your face?
Say, up the stage, why, oft, do you retire,
To bid the pit your radiant backs admire?
Quite careless of your suitor’s sad distress,
While he, poor fellow! sighs to the P. S.
Yes, it has griev’d my soul, indeed to view
Your curst ill-usage of young Mountague:
When you no more remark’d his moans so deep,
Than if exhal’d from drunken chimney-sweep.
I own, to mind, Miss Juliet’s manners brought
The sage, old saw of “better fed than taught.”
Further rebuke your fav’rite must not add,
Yet this, I say, is, certainly, too bad;
And ev’n sore-stung with twitches of the gout,
Politeness bids you hear his story out.’ P. 23.

ART. 51.—*The Rosciad, a Poem: dedicated to Mr. Kemble.* 4to. 3s.
Butler. 1802.

This author, with the greatest good-nature, diffuses all honey and no gall. He finds in the acting of every performer something to commend; but his lines are too feeble to afford them a very durable panegyric.

ART. 52.—*The Minstrel Youth, a Lyric Romance, in three Parts; and other Poems.* By W. Case, jun. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Conder. 1802.

The ‘Minstrel Youth,’ and the other little poems accompanying it, will never raise a blush on their author’s cheek for having uttered a word in them repugnant to the cause of virtue. But this is not all

that is requisite to constitute a poet. Mr. Case's verses are spiritless, and frequently lengthened out by dull expletives. Time and study will considerably amend these imperfections; and we would advise him to employ some years in the reading of our best poetical writers before he again attempts to appear at the tribunal of the public.

NOVELS.

ART. 53.—*Memoirs of a Family in Swisserland; founded on Facts.*
4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

Whether this story be really founded on fact, or not, is to the world matter of very little moment; but it certainly has a claim to much more praise than it is in our power to bestow on the greater part of the novels that come before us. There is a great deal of virtuous sentiment breathed throughout the work; and the youthful Gertrude is an amiable character. In the former volumes the author appears to write to please himself; in the last he falls off, and makes Arminfeld seem a ghost, to please the vitiated taste of novel-readers. The language is frequently uncouth; but the reflexions are acute; and, though not always new, are remarkably well appropriated. The following observations do credit to the author's talents.

'The adoration of fashion obtained no where more enthusiastic followers than in this kingdom: where its festivals are commemorated with the profoundest veneration; and annual offerings at its shrines are regularly made, with every demonstration of the most respectful worship.

'The sacrifices to this deity consist of every thing which can be dear to humanity and sacred to piety. On its altars are daily immolated rich sacrifices of time, fortune, sentiment, honor, sense, and morality.

'Nothing is considered too precious to be offered at its shrine, where even human victims fall adorned for sacrifice with flowery chaplets.

'The worship of the heathen deities consisted sometimes in obscene mysteries, and nightly orgies.

'Fashion has these also;—and its votaries regularly attend their solemnization.

'Nothing is required of those, who wish to be initiated into them, except a blind devotion to fashion, and a fortune equal to the expenses attendant on her worship. With these qualifications every rank of citizens may be admitted almost indiscriminately.' Vol. i. p. 181.

ART. 54.—*The sincere Huron; or Pupil of Nature: a true History.*
Translated from the French of Voltaire. 12mo. 1s. 6d. sewed.
Bone. 1801.

It has been frequently remarked, and with the greatest truth, that the almost imperceptible insinuations of witty authors are more dangerous to the youthful reader than the broad joke of obscenity, or the bold attack of infidelity. Old men, like ourselves, may suffer themselves, without fear, to be occasionally amused by the wit of Voltaire, which

is abundant in the volume before us; we must however add, that, as in his other productions, so here it is employed in ridiculing religion, its priests, and its institutions. On this account we do not recommend its perusal to the inexperienced. The translation is spirited and faithful.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 55.—*The Grazier's ready Reckoner, or, a useful Guide for buying and selling Cattle, being a complete Set of Tables, distinctly pointing out the Weight of Black-Cattle, Sheep, or Swine, from three to one hundred and thirty Stones, by Measurement; together with Directions, showing the particular Parts where the Cattle are to be measured.* By George Renton. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Newton.

These valuable tables, from an easy and short measurement, give the weight of oxen, sheep, or swine. A grazier and butcher estimate with much accuracy by sight. We have therefore tried in different instances their valuation by the tables, and think, from these trials, our author's work very judicious. A plate is prefixed, to prevent error in the parts measured.

ART. 56.—*Some Doubts relative to the Efficacy of Mr. Forsyth's Plaister in filling up the Holes in Trees, &c. ascribed to it by Dr. Anderson and Mr. Forsyth. In a Letter to Dr. Anderson from Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq.* 4to. 1s. White. 1802.

Mr. Knight expresses, with little hesitation, his doubts of the efficacy of Mr. Forsyth's plaster, and pretty strongly disputes the fidelity of his descriptions; yet of Mr. Knight's knowledge of the physiology of vegetation we have had ample proofs. Indeed the language is so strong, that we are very unwilling to enlarge on the subject. Mr. Forsyth and Dr. Anderson are publicly called on, not only to defend a point of science, but their own credit. Their case in reply, if it be effectual, must rest on decisive facts, and be supported by unexceptionable evidence.

ART. 57.—*The Names of Parishes and other Divisions maintaining their Poor separately in the County of Westmorland; with the Population of each: on a Plan which may facilitate the Execution of the Poor Laws, and the future Ascertainment of the Number of Inhabitants in England.* By a Justice of the Peace for the Counties of Westmorland and Lancaster. 8vo. 1s. Richardsons. 1802.

A very useful publication for the county of Westmorland, on a plan which the author recommends; and we join in the recommendation of it to the attention of every county in England. Much trouble would be saved, if the magistrate, on inspecting a printed book, could tell the division in which any hamlet is placed which falls beneath his cognisance; and we have no doubt, as the different justices of the peace become acquainted with the plan here presented, they will gradually copy it, and thus extend its utility.

ART. 58.—*Elements of Self-Knowledge: intended to lead Youth into an early Acquaintance with the Nature of Man, by an Anatomical Display of the Human Frame, a concise View of the Mental Faculties, and an Inquiry into the genuine Nature of the Passions. Compiled, arranged, and partly written, by R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1802.*

Our author endeavours to give a light summary of anatomy; a sketch of some of the most striking parts of physiology; and to these he has added a metaphysical system, or a natural history of the human mind—of its affections and passions. He aims not at novelty, but has compiled from tolerably correct authors, and his accounts seem not to be contaminated with any very important errors. With respect to decorum, he has steered very successfully amidst shoals and quicksands. The third part, on the passions, is the most extensive and original: it appears in many respects judicious and entertaining, but possesses no striking points which would induce us to copy any part of it. We shall however select our author's own apology from his preface.

‘In drawing out the first part, I was a little alarmed at the nomenclature of anatomy, fearing it might be thought not adapted to the ladies, to whom I equally wished to render the volume acceptable: but I was encouraged on recollecting the scientific terms of one of their favourite studies, and my alarm subsided, when reason assured me that the same words could not be more difficult in one science than in another. As young ladies have not been afraid to encounter with *clavicula, glandula, fauces, cuspidatum, ensiformis, deltoides, medulla, &c.* in their study of vegetative bodies, they may boldly venture upon the study of her own animated ones, for they will only meet such and similar terms.

‘The fair may have another objection to anatomy, which is, that it is of a disgusting nature; and so indeed it would be to them were it studied practically, but the knowledge gained by words has not such disgusting effects. The study of their interior structure will never injure their outward form. Their smiles will not be the less enchanting that they know the nature of their lips, nor the grace of their shape be injured by a knowledge of the prop-work that supports it: and I cannot but think that it will prove at least as interesting to them to be acquainted with their own fine eyes, as with any *gymnospermian* nettle in the hedges. I promise that they shall find no indelicacy to offend modesty; and on the other hand, I protest against that squeamishness which sickens at the mention of muscles, nerves, veins, &c. and which prefers ignorance to strength of mind. This part, however, is but short, and intended more to give general ideas, than to pursue minute investigations, and a glossary of the technical terms used in it is prefixed, except the muscles, which are explained in the table given of them. One hint may not be amiss here: knowledge and pedantry are perfectly distinct. Terms of art must be used to convey the former, but the female who shall introduce them into conversation will hardly escape a charge of the latter. Let her get acquainted with her heart, and she may venture

to talk of its expansion, but she must never form her tongue to the pronunciation of its diastole and systole.' p. vii.

ART. 59.—*A Letter to Abraham Goldsmid, Esq. containing Strictures on Mr. Joshua Van Oven's Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor. Pointing out the Impracticability of ameliorating their Condition, through the Medium of Taxation and Coercion. With a Plan for erecting a Jewish College, or Seminary, &c. By Philo Judeis. 8vo. 1s. Blacks and Parry. 1802.*

The writer reprobates the proposed plan of securing to the Jewish poor a provision under an act of parliament. He advances an argument *ad verecundiam*, which is very common; and we quote it only to mark its absurdity.

'The system of poor-laws founded upon the 43d of Elizabeth, and the subsequent statutes enacted, for perfecting that system, have been found wholly inadequate to effect the salutary purposes for which they were projected and framed, by the greatest men of this, or perhaps any other age or kingdom.—And do you expect to find among your nation, men capable of improving upon the collected wisdom of Great-Britain, and her most eminent and distinguished senates?' p. 17.

A dwarf on a giant's back sees farther than the giant himself; and we perceive no reason why there may not be found in any large collective body some person or persons capable of improving upon an antecedent system. We agree, however, in general with our author, and particularly so in his recommendation to the very opulent and worthy character to whom these pages are addressed, the erection of a proper college or seminary for the education of Jewish youth, and of an asylum for the lame, blind, and infirm Jews, who are thereby rendered incapable of procuring the means of subsistence.

ART. 60.—*Answer to Mr. Joshua Van Oven's Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor in London; in which some of his hasty Mistakes are rectified, with a Word to P. Colquhoun, Esq. on the Subject of the Jews as treated in his Police of the Metropolis, with an Introductory Letter setting in a conspicuous View some of the Jewish Bye Laws as observed at present, and an exact Copy of the Bill now before Parliament for bettering the State of the indigent Jews. By L. Alexander. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1802.*

Mr. Alexander is a Jew printer, who, having suffered from the very arbitrary conduct, according to his own account, of the rulers of the synagogue, is very unwilling that they should be vested with greater powers by an act of parliament. It is astonishing, if Mr. Alexander be correct in this statement, how little encouragement is given to each other by Jews in their arts and professions: in all this they differ, as materially as in their creed, from Christian sectaries, who are too prone to make religious concord the grounds of their attention to worldly considerations, to the utter exclusion of the worthy and industrious who may not happen to exist within their own pale. The Jews, as a body, are far from being rich, though

there are some very wealthy individuals among them; and the tax proposed for the support of their poor will be found, it is apprehended, oppressive and burdensome. By voluntary contributions, as among the Portuguese Jews, the ends to be obtained by the act in question might perhaps be effected with less difficulty and vexation.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MR. PENN having introduced the following *corrigenda* into his own copy of the GREEK INSCRIPTION, and favoured us with a transcript, we with much pleasure insert them.

* * These corrections are referred to the lines on the stone, as numbered in the printed inscription. ⁽⁸⁾ Μεμφει—⁽¹⁰⁾ Οσιριος—⁽¹³⁾ προσωφειλον—⁽¹⁵⁾ απο τε της—⁽¹⁸⁾ εγλελειμενα—⁽¹⁹⁾ προσεταξεν—⁽²²⁾ τω Βουσιριτη—⁽²⁷⁾ ωχυρωμενη—⁽²⁷⁾ την χωραν ε . . . —⁽³⁴⁾ προςδιωρθωσατο—⁽⁴¹⁾ χρ[υσεων—⁽⁴⁴⁾ Μεμφει—⁽⁴⁵⁾ χρ[υσεα—⁽⁴⁸⁾ dele τε—⁽⁵²⁾ συντελου . . .

WE have to announce the receipt of ZOEGA's splendid work *De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum*—the *third* number of MILLIN's *Monumens Antiques*—AKERBLAD's *Inscriptionis Phœnicæ Oxoniensis nova Interpretatio*, and HIS *Lettre sur l'Inscription Egyptienne de ROSETTE*, containing an *alphabet* thence taken, of the *ancient Egyptian language*. These, with other interesting communications from abroad, will be the subjects of articles in our next APPENDIX.

WE beg to state to our Readers, that the 'Letter addressed to Mr. Fox, in consequence of his Speech on the Character of the late Duke of Bedford,' was given *anonymously* to the world; and that the appearance of Mr. Cartwright's name in the Contents of our number for August last was owing to an oversight, easily explained by a reference to the long title-page of the Letter, in which Mr. Cartwright's name is introduced, not as the author of the Letter, but of a Sermon preached upon the death of the duke of Bedford.